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The Impact of PPP and TBLT

on Vietnamese Students' Writing Performance and Self-Regulation

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Most learning is not the result of instruction.
It is rather the result of unhampered participation in a meaningful setting.
- Ivan Illich

Preface

While the available research literature appears to support the implementation of task-based language teaching (TBLT) in Western countries, few studies have been conducted to investigate its impact in classroom teaching practice in Asia, especially in comparison with the presentation-practice-production (PPP) approach, which many Asian teachers still favor.

The current study explores the differential effects of the PPP and TBLT approach on Vietnamese students' writing performance and self-regulation in writing descriptive and argumentative paragraphs. The study was conducted with 138 students of English Language Studies at a university in Vietnam.

Students were randomly assigned to either the PPP or TBLT condition in which they learned how to write descriptive and argumentative paragraphs within a semester of ten weeks. Students' writing performance and self-regulation were assessed three times, in a *pretest* (before the writing courses began), in an *immediate posttest* (right after the courses finished), and in a *delayed posttest* (ten weeks after the immediate posttest). Students' written output was evaluated based on the four aspects of *lexical diversity, linguistic accuracy, structural properties,* and *communicative effectiveness.* Students' self-regulation was assessed based on their self-report questionnaires, focus group interviews and observations of pair work and classroom activities.

Results show that both PPP and TBLT approaches are effective in enhancing students' writing performance. Salient results of the current study include the following. First, the students in the PPP condition had significantly higher scores than those in the TBLT condition on linguistic accuracy in the immediate posttest. Meanwhile, students in the TBLT condition had significantly higher scores than their fellow students on lexical diversity in the immediate posttest. With regard to self-regulation, the students in the TBLT condition had significantly higher scores than those in the PPP condition in the immediate posttest.

In the delayed posttest, students in the two conditions only differed significantly in term of communicative effectiveness of descriptive paragraphs with TBLT students outperforming PPP students.

There are six chapters in this dissertation. *Chapter 1* introduces the historical and educational background of the study, my motivation to conduct it, and two main goals the study aims to reach. *Chapter 2* elaborates on the complexity of the writing process, differences between writing in the first language versus the second and foreign language, and various types of instruction for teaching L2 and FL writing. The chapter continues to describe two important factors that impact on students' writing outcomes, namely *self-regulated learning* and *revision*. Then, the chapter elaborates on PPP and TBLT, the two teaching conditions compared in the current study. *Chapter 3* is a methodological description of the study with the research questions and hypotheses, the institutional context of the study, and its participants. I also describe the two writing courses of PPP and TBLT in details including their similarities and differences. Measures for students' writing outcomes and self-regulation are also presented in this chapter. *Chapter 4* reports the result of each research question and *Chapter 5* discusses the findings. *Chapter 6* summarizes the main findings of the study, discusses some pedagogical implications, lists several limitations of the study and suggests directions for further research.

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This book is dedicated to my family.

Contents

List of Abbreviations

CTU	Can Tho University
EFL	English as a foreign language
ELT	English language teaching
ESL	English as a second language
FL	Foreign language
IELTS	International English language testing system
L1	First language
L2	Second language
LD	Lexical diversity
MANOVA	Multivariate analysis of variance
MOET	Ministry of Education and Training
PPP	Presentation – Practice – Production
RM-ANOVA	Repeated measure analysis of variance
SLA	Second language acquisition
SRL	Self-regulated learning
TBLT	Task-based language teaching
TTR	Type-token ratio

List of Figures

List of Tables

Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, I will describe the historical and educational context of Vietnam; Vietnamese teaching and learning styles; the status and practice of teaching English as a foreign language (EFL); and efforts of various stakeholders to improve Vietnamese students' English language proficiency. My personal motivations to conduct this study will also be presented in this chapter, along with my research goals.

1.1 Vietnamese historical and educational context

1.1.1 Vietnamese historical context

Vietnam history dates back to BC 2879 when the first Vietnamese kingdom of Van Lang was established (Huong & Fry, 2004). The country was first occupied by the Chinese for almost one thousand years, from BC 111 to 939 AD. In such a historical and cultural context, it is undeniable that foreign cultures, especially Chinese culture, have had an ideological, cultural and educational impact on generations of Vietnamese learners and their learning styles. It is claimed that the influence of Chinese domination has direct relevance to education (Fry, 2009) and Vietnam is part of the Confucian world (Tu, 1993, 1996). Goodman (2005) remarks that "The Vietnamese view of the world of how it worked, of family and society and the roles of its members, and the concepts of duty and virtue, all bore a heavy resemblance to Confucian interpretation of life" (p.31).

Vietnam first encountered western cultures during the 17th and 18th centuries via Christian missionaries and traders from Portugal, Spain, Britain and France (Canh, 2011). One of the most significant outcomes of such contacts was the Romanized Vietnamese script, which was developed by a French missionary, Alexandre de Rhodes, in the seventeenth century. This innovation enabled ordinary Vietnamese people to access written texts, thereby exerting a profound influence on education (Huong & Fry, 2004). From 1858 to 1945, the country was colonized by the French. The French's colonization "marked the end of Confucianism at the State ideology in Vietnam though it was still used as a code of moral conduct by the Vietnamese" (Canh, 2011, p. 11).

The independence war against the French from 1945 to 1954 ended with the Geneva Agreement, which divided the country into two states, namely North Vietnam and South Vietnam. The intervention of the United States after the Agreement resulted in a 20-year war from 1954 to 1975. Although Vietnam was reunified in 1975, the country's economy was heavily damaged. During a decade of national reunification (1975 – 1985), Vietnam experienced an economic decline (Be & Crabbe, 1999). In 1986, the Vietnamese government decided to expand relations with foreign countries and adopt the market-oriented economy, which is usually referred to

as the "Doi Moi" or open-door policy. This decision has led to some radical changes in EFL status in Vietnam, which will be further discussed below.

In brief, for historical reasons, Vietnam has undergone considerable Chinese and western influences on its traditional culture and language, which is reflected in the schooling system, literature and social mores (Canh, Choi, & Spolsky, 2007).

1.1.1 Education in Vietnam

The Vietnamese educational system is composed of five levels: pre-school (3 to 6 years old), primary (grades 1 to 5), secondary (grades 6 to 9), high school (grades 10 to 12), and tertiary. At the end of grade 12, students must pass a formal national examination to earn a high school diploma. In order to access tertiary education, students have to obtain this high school diploma and pass a national entrance examination.

In current Vietnamese society, education is considered as a 'ticket to ride', or a "mechanism for upward social mobility" (Canh, 2011, p. 16). Therefore, it is common that many Vietnamese parents want their children to study and reach a high level in the formal education system by getting a university degree. Therefore, both teachers and students focus mostly on achieving high scores in competitive examinations, especially the entrance exam to the university, which strongly influences students' learning attitudes and styles. Particularly, students try as hard as they can to memorize the knowledge they learn at school in order to get good marks at the knowledge-oriented examinations (Loi, 2011).

1.2 Vietnamese teaching and learning styles

Being influenced by the Confucianism, Vietnam shares with other societies in the Asian region a highly collective culture. The most common feature of this type of culture is the high-power distance. This culture shapes Vietnamese students' attitude toward knowledge and authority and their beliefs about teaching and learning styles (Huong, 2010). Two of the most common characteristics of teaching and learning within this culture are teacher-centeredness and low student participation.

In addition, the way of teaching and learning in Vietnam is also affected by examination-oriented educational practice in Vietnam. Therefore, the curriculum emphasizes theoretical information and provides little space for practical experience (Canh, 2011). In fact, several researchers (e.g. Duggan, 2001; Ng & Nguyen, 2006) claim that the Vietnamese school curriculum is "extremely voluminous". As a result, learners focus on repeating, reciting, and memorizing factual information from their textbook and they are "usually uncritical of the information they receive" (Canh, 2011, p. 17). Within that context, Nguyen (2002) remarks that Vietnamese learners "are very traditional in their learning styles: they are quiet and attentive, good at memorizing and following directions, reluctant to participate" and "regard the teacher as the complete source of knowledge" (p.4). Oanh and Hien (2006), in a similar vein, observe that "the prevailing model of teaching and learning" in Vietnam is "teacher teaches and students learn'' and "students are expected to listen rather than participate actively" (p.35).

1.3 The status of EFL practice in Vietnam

Although English has been taught in Vietnamese schools since the late nineteenth century (during the French colonization), it only became more popular in the country since the late 1980s with the start of the economic reform (Lap, 2005). The open-door policy in Vietnam attracted English-speaking foreigners to Vietnam and enhanced business communication with western countries. Within the context of international business cooperation development, English language use increased its importance. Canh et al (2007) state that "For the first time in the country's many-thousand-year-long history, English emerged as the most important foreign language, which was chosen by most students" (p. 172).

An outstanding manifestation for the rise of English is that approximately 90 percent of undergraduate students chooses English as the foreign language learned at school (Huy Thinh, 2006; Loc, 2005). This percentage is impressive in view of the fact that foreign language education is compulsory at secondary and high school levels and the first two years of undergraduate programs at tertiary institutions as regulated by the Ministry of Education and Training (MOET). Other foreign

languages which are far less popular among Vietnamese students' choices are French and Chinese. However, researchers, educators and teachers in Vietnam agree that the outcome of EFL education is far from impressive (Canh, 1999; Huy Thinh, 2006; Loc, 2005). Compared with other students in the Asian region, Vietnamese students generally have a lower proficiency. Therefore, it is difficult for them to communicate or pursue a study program in English, which puts them at a disadvantage in the international work force (Huy Thinh, 2006; Loc, 2005).

Similar to other Asian countries such as China (Burnaby & Sun, 1989; Liao, 2004), South Korea (Li, 1998), and Japan (Nishino & Watanabe, 2008), English language teaching (ELT) in Vietnam has been predominated by traditional models of direct instruction oriented towards developing knowledge about the English language at the expense of developing communicative competence.

It has been commonly observed that the prevailing model of language learning in Vietnam is listening to the teacher, then repeating, then copying linguistic models provided by the teacher on the chalkboard (Canh, 1999; Hiep, 2007; Kennett & Knight, 1999). That analytical learning and teaching style encourages learners to learn and memorize rules instead of being engaged in other types of activities (Canh, 2011).

In a study of the implementation of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) by English native speaker teachers in Vietnamese universities and language centers, Bock (2000) reports that students were more motivated to pass examinations (Warden & Lin, 2000) than to achieve communicative competence or to work in groups. In addition, Oanh and Hien (2006) studied the Vietnamese EFL university undergraduates and found that memorization was viewed by both the teachers and the students as a learning strategy that helps students gain accuracy, fluency and self-confidence. Students' emphasis on memorization of grammatical rules, grammatical accuracy, mechanical drills, and repetition has been reported further by researchers such as Bernat (2004), Tomlinson and Dat (2004) and Hiep (2007).

1.4 Recent innovative responses

Attempts to respond to Vietnamese students' low English proficiency level and the low effectiveness of ELT practice have been undertaken at secondary, high school

and tertiary levels in Vietnam. At secondary and high school levels, a macro-level and structured innovation has been attempted through the introduction of new English textbooks. These textbooks are claimed to adopt communicative approaches in teaching the four language skills: listening, speaking, reading and writing (Canh, 2008). In addition to the textbook change, from 2000 to 2008, the MOET cooperated with the British Council to train key English teachers and teacher educators in 20 provinces across the country to change their language teaching practices toward a more learner-centered approach. These teachers, after being trained, have delivered workshops for secondary and high school teachers. MOET has not yet evaluated the effects of the curricular innovation on the teaching practices of secondary and high school teachers and students' learning outcomes. However, since the tests and exams of the secondary and on high school levels still focus on measuring linguistic knowledge of the target language far more than overall communicative ability, teachers and students still put more effort into teaching and learning English language knowledge. Therefore, new textbooks and in-service training appear to be inadequate to lead to fundamental changes in teachers' practice toward a more communicative orientation (Canh, 2008).

At tertiary level, efforts to improve ELT practice are less formal and structured. Seminars and conferences have been organized for various education stakeholders to discuss and share their problems, experiences and ways of improving tertiary English teaching effectiveness (Loi, 2011). For example, constraints of teaching English at tertiary level in a more learner-centered approach have been voiced in a conference hosted by the Teacher College of Ho Chi Minh in 2005. Some of these factors include teachers' lack of English proficiency, students' mixed proficiency levels and low motivation, large class sizes, time pressures, and form-oriented assessment (Dai hoc Su pham, 2005). Measures for improving the educational environment were also suggested at these conferences, which included measures like retraining English teachers, standardizing the tertiary EFL curriculum, using a standardized assessment tools (Huy Thinh, 2006), designing a set of textbooks for tertiary English (Loc, 2005), and improving and increasing educational facilities (Dai hoc Su pham, 2005). Although no formal research or educational agenda has

been officially generated from such discussions and attempts, these efforts have highlighted an urgent demand for restructuring ELT policy and practice to improve current Vietnamese English language education.

1.5 Personal motivations

Having been dedicated to English teaching at tertiary level in Vietnam for more than ten years and having gained several years of experience as a teacher-trainer at university level, I was strongly motivated to discover a teaching approach that can help my students optimize their English acquisition and develop their learning autonomy. Therefore, conducting a study that explores and compares the effectiveness of presentation - practice - production (PPP) teaching and task-based language teaching (TBLT) on undergraduate students' writing performance and self-regulated writing strategies is worthwhile for a number of reasons.

First, PPP has long been implemented in English language teaching in Vietnam at secondary, high school and tertiary levels. However, as mentioned above, students' learning outcomes are not up to the standard. Meanwhile, proponents of TBLT advocate that because their approach has a sound theoretical basis in second language acquisition (SLA) research, it can advance second language learning more effectively than traditional approaches (Long, 1990; Long & Crookes, 1992; Shehadeh, 2005; Skehan, 1996; Van den Branden, Bygate, & Norris, 2009; D. Willis & Willis, 2008). If this is true, then modifying classroom practice in line with basic principles of TBLT might potentially enhance the effectiveness of ELT teaching in the Vietnamese context. Therefore, my research can contribute to finding whether TBLT will be effective in Vietnam and should be promoted more among Vietnamese language teachers.

Second, English writing skills are important to my students who enroll in the English Language Studies program. Being good at writing is useful to my students for both their undergraduate study and their future work. From the third year of their undergraduate study onward, these students have to answer English essay exam questions for courses such as British and American Literature, Western Culture and Society, and Translation Theory. Therefore, expressing themselves well through a

written text will help them gain high scores for these courses. In addition, as stated in the university curriculum for the English Language Studies program, when these students graduate, they will have jobs as secretaries, translators or study program coordinators. These jobs, in fact, require good written communication skills. The ability to write well will help them convey their message to readers effectively, and thus help them do their jobs well. As a consequence, a study that can figure out a better teaching approach to enhance students' writing skills is necessary.

Third, one of the important goals of education today is to assist students in becoming self-regulated learners. Self-regulatory skills will help students not only to improve their learning during their school years but also prepare them for further education, or life-long learning (Nota, Soresi, & Zimmerman, 2004). Being able to regulate one's own learning is viewed by educational psychologists and policy makers as the key to successful learning in school and beyond (Boekaerts, 1999). For these reasons, a comparison of the effectiveness of the two approaches on students' self-regulated writing strategies might help teachers to decide which teaching approach they should use in their classrooms.

1.6 Research goals

The overall goal of the research reported in this dissertation is to compare the impact of PPP and TBLT on Vietnamese first-year students' writing skills and self-regulated learning development. Through this research, the following issues are explored:

a. The extent to which PPP and TBLT help students develop their writing performance and self-regulated writing strategies.
b. The differences between the PPP and TBLT in developing students' writing performance and self-regulated writing strategies.

Chapter 2

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

This chapter first elaborates on the complexity of the writing process, differences between writing in the first language (L1) versus the second (L2) and foreign language (FL), and various types of instruction for teaching L2 and FL writing. The chapter continues to describe two important factors that impact on students' writing outcomes, namely *self-regulated learning* (SRL) and *revision.* Then, the chapter elaborates on PPP and TBLT, the two teaching conditions compared in the current study. The benefits and drawbacks of the two approaches will be presented by comparing the arguments of both their proponents and critics. The final part of the chapter discusses the challenges of implementing TBLT in Asia, where the cultural and educational context is different from the western one, where the approach is applied fairly successfully.

2.1 Writing

Writing is more than text producing. It is a process that involves different components, as different writing models (Bereiter & Scardamalia, 1987; Chenoweth & Hayes, 2001; Flower & Hayes, 1980; Hayes, 1996) illustrate. In Hayes' (1996) model of writing, for example, writing is described as an individual - environmental model. In particular, writing consists of two major components, namely the task environment and the individual. The *task environment* includes two subcomponents. The audience, the social environment and other texts that the writer may read belong to the *social component* whereas the text that the writer has produced so far and the writing medium such as a pen and paper belong to the *physical component*. The *individual* includes motivation and affect, cognitive processes, working memory and long-term memory. The writing model infers that writing depends on "an appropriate combination of cognitive, affective, social and physical conditions" (Hayes, 1996, p. 5), and therefore must be regarded as a complex activity.

That writing is a complex activity which involves the simultaneous balancing of different levels can also be inferred from later adaptations of the Hayes and Flower model. Chenoweth and Hayes (2001), basing their model on Kaufer, Hayes and Flowers' (1986) model and Hayes' (1996) model, list three levels of writing, namely a resource level, a process level, and a control level. The first level is the *resource* level which consists of internal memories and general-purpose processes. At this level, when starting to write, writers have to access their memories of vocabulary and grammar structures and make numerous decisions such as choosing appropriate words, applying grammatical rules, etc.

The second level is the *process* level which is divided into internal processes on the one hand and the external environment on the other. Internal processes include (1) a proposer to use pre-linguistic knowledge to produce ideas, (2) a translator to turn these ideas into strings of language, (3) a reviser to assess the language just produced, and (4) a transcriber to convert the language into the written form. At the same time, a writer also needs to take into account the external environment, that is, the audience, the text written so far and possibly also task materials.

The final level is the *control* level in which writers must consider the task goals and interactions of the sub-processes in the *process* level. Chenoweth and Hayes (2001) claim that the interactions among different sub-processes at the process level are governed by the task schema of the control level and "would not be the same for all tasks and all writers" (p. 85). In addition, the authors suggest that the interactions of the proposer, translator, reviser and transcriber are not "one-directional with each process passively accepting input from the previous one" but "each process is influenced by the next process in line" (p. 85).

Therefore, writing is a complicated and intentional activity that involves the resource level, various internal processes, and an external environment. On top of that, writing is often "self-planned, self-initiated and self-sustained" (Zimmerman & Risemberg, 1997, p. 73). For that reason, it is claimed that the development of students' writing competence depends on their level of self-regulation (Graham & Harris, 2000).

2.2 Writing in a second and foreign language versus writing in a first language

So far in this book, writing in the first language, second language and foreign language has not been systematically distinguished. However, from the above descriptions of various writing models, it can be seen that writing is a challenging process. L1 writing "demands not only language abilities but also more general (meta)cognitive abilities" (Schoonen et al., 2003, p. 166). Writing in L2 and FL is even more challenging because available knowledge developed from L1 experience, e.g. knowledge about text structures, might not be employed because writers have to allocate their cognitive resources to other text elements such as spelling and grammar (Manchon & De Larios, 2007).

In the same vein, Schoonen et al. (2009) claim that the formulation process of a written product "strongly depends on the availability and accessibility of linguistic means" (p. 80). Consequently, L2 and FL writing may be much more difficult and time consuming than L1 writing (Chenoweth & Hayes, 2001; De Larios, Manchón, & Murphy, 2006) and L2/FL writers usually narrow their attention to

language-specific problems such as word finding and grammar structures rather than to other issues of content, coherence and cohesion (De Larios, et al., 2006; M. M. C. Stevenson, 2005). In addition, the limited knowledge of the L2/FL can prevents young and inexperienced writers from transferring their metacognitive knowledge about writing and writing experience from L1 to L2 or FL writing situations (Jones & Tetroe, 1987; Schoonen, et al., 2003; Whalen & Menard, 1995).

More specifically, when writing in L1, writers may have easy and automatic access to available words and grammatical structures in their mind (Schoonen, et al., 2003). However, differences exists between proficient and weak L1 writers in that the proficient ones have greater availability of vocabulary and grammar, better metacognitive strategies to retrieve their language knowledge and a higher ability to keep information in working memory while manipulating the text content than weaker writers (Benton, Kraft, Glover, & Plake, 1984).

In L2 and FL writing, the gap between the proficient and weak writers is even larger (Schoonen, et al., 2009). Writers differ not only in their linguistic knowledge of the target language, namely vocabulary and grammatical structures, but also in the ease of accessing that linguistic knowledge (Schoonen, et al., 2003). In fact, differences in the degree of linguistic knowledge access among the L2 and FL writers can be larger than those among L1 writers depending on differences in L2 and FL exposure, quality of instruction and language learning aptitude (Chenoweth & Hayes, 2001).

In short, writing is a very complex and demanding process for L1, L2 and FL learners. However, for L2 and FL learners, writing may be particularly challenging because they can neither retrieve their vocabulary and grammar structures as easily as in L1 writing nor use their (meta)cognitive knowledge of writing in the same way as in L1-related tasks.

2.3 Teaching writing

Ferris and Hedgcock (2013) cite Polio and William (2011) and Silva and Brice (2004) to claim that the "understanding of writing processes and the best methods for teaching them is disparate and continues to shift" (p. 3). Regarding L2 writing,

Cumming and Riazi (2000) maintain that we still lack a unified understanding of "how people actually learn to write in a second language" (p. 57) and how formal instruction can contribute to that learning process the most productively.

Ferris and Hedgcock (2013) caution that there would be "numerous common features and overlapping presuppositions, even among competing theories" (p. 58) when one wants to compare different approaches to writing instruction (Fulkerson, 2005; Hedgcock, 2010; Knoblauch & Brannon, 1984). Below, we will describe three prevailing approaches to writing instruction in EFL classrooms (Badger & White, 2000), namely *product approaches*, *process approaches* and *genre approaches*.

2.3.1 Product approaches

Product-oriented approaches to writing instruction were popular in U.S. schools, colleges and universities from the early 20th century to the 1960s (Ferris & Hedgcock, 2013). Teachers and professors focused on instructing their students (both native speakers of English and high-proficient L2 and FL English speakers) to read and analyze novels, short stories, plays, essays and poetry in their written compositions, essays or "themes" (Ferris & Hedgcock, 2013, p. 63). Within that context, students received little instructions on how to plan, draft, share, revise or edit their texts (Babin & Harrison, 1999; Clark, 2011; Gold, 2008; Graves, 1999; Kroll, 2001).

In the product approach, learning to write has four stages, namely familiarization, controlled writing, guided writing and free writing (Pincas, 1982). In the familiarization stage, the teacher first introduces and defines a rhetoric form with prescribed rules or formulae such as "All paragraphs must have a topic sentence" or "All concluding paragraphs reiterate the information in the introduction" (Williams, 2003, pp. 100-101). Students then read and analyze sample texts during class. Then, students are required to imitate the pattern they have been introduced to and analyzed before in the controlled and guided writing stages. Gradually, students are provided with increased freedom in their writing practice until they are ready for the free writing stage (Badger & White, 2000). In other words, in the free writing section,

students can "use the writing skill as part of a genuine activity such as writing a letter, story or essay" (Pincas, 1982, p. 22).

This approach, because of its focus on imitating formulaic models and studying mechanical grammar, has been claimed to marginally develop writing proficiency and inhibit the emergence of measurable composition skills (Campbell & Latimer, 2012; Graham & Perin, 2007).

2.3.2 Process approaches

Developed later than product approaches, process approaches emerged as "a highly influential trend in L1 composition pedagogy and research" in the 1960s, 1970s and 1980s (Ferris & Hedgcock, 2013, p. 64). There are many different process approaches to writing (Badger & White, 2000) and process-oriented writing can be thought of as a range of approaches and models (Ferris & Hedgcock, 2013). Process-oriented pedagogies do not focus on isolated parts of texts or grammatical features but on identifying and solving problems, discovering novel ideas, expressing oneself in writing and revising written outputs (Emig, 1983; Kucer, 2009; Matsuda, 2003; Raimes, 1991; Tobin, 2001; Zamel, 1982, 1987).

Although many proponents of process writing acknowledge that it is an individualized operation, they generally assume that all writers engage in the eight stages of inventing (prewriting), planning, drafting, pausing, reading, revising, editing and publishing to some degree (Williams, 2003, p. 101). In process approaches, the teacher's primary role is facilitating the learners' writing rather than providing input or stimuli (Badger & White, 2000).

Process-oriented models are often divided into two categories, namely expressivist and cognitivist models (Faigley, 1986; Kucer, 2009; C. Polio & Williams, 2011). In *expressivist* models, writing is "a creative act" in which a writer discovers one's "true self" (Berlin, 1988, p. 484), so the teacher's instruction should be nondirective and personalized, and the writing tasks should be designed in a way that promote writers' self-discovery, personal voice and novice's inner writer empowerment (Bräuer, 2000; Burnham, 2001; Clark, 2011; Elbow, 1998a, 1998b, 2012; Zamel, 1982). Some output of this process-oriented writing model includes

journal entries and personal essays which are intended to free writers from the inhibitions of writing for a critical audience such as a teacher (Elbow, 1998a, 1998b), invite them to experiment with novel uses of written language, and give them chances to express their novel ideas, opinions, and even personal feelings.

In *cognitivist* models, writing is considered as a problem-solving operation. Similar to expressivist models, these also recognize the need to understand and cultivate novice writers' composing as generative, recursive, individual and "inner-directed" processes (Bizzell, 1992; Bräuer, 2000; Kucer, 2009; Matsuda, 2003; McCutchen, Teske, & Bankston, 2008; D. R. Olson, 2002; C. Polio & Williams, 2011). Cognitive approaches, however, differ from expressivist approaches in that the former has more theoretical underpinnings and empirical support. Cognitivist theory and research have influenced L1 and L2 writing instruction since the early 1980s with Hayes and Flower's (1980) description of the composing processes of expert, monolingual writers of English (Ferris & Hedgcock, 2013). Cognitive approaches focus primarily on developing writers' cognitive and metacognitive strategies for creating, revising, and polishing their texts independently (Berlin, 1988; De Larios, Murphy, & Marin, 2002; Durst, 2006; Flower, 1989; Hedgcock, 2012; F. Hyland, 2011; Kucer, 2009; C. B. Olson & Land, 2007; C. Polio & Williams, 2011). The teacher's role in cognitive process-oriented approaches "is to be nondirective and facilitating, assisting writers to express … meanings through an encouraging and cooperative environment with minimal interference" (K. Hyland, 2003, p. 18).

2.3.3 Genre approaches

The concept of *genre* has generated an extensive literature (Kay & Dudley-Evans, 1998) because it is considered as "a fuzzy concept" (Swales, 1990, p. 33) and a controversial one (Reid, 1987). Genres have been defined as written texts that are "(a) primarily literary, (b) entirely defined by textual regularities in form and content, (c) fixed and immutable, and (d) classifiable into neat and mutually exclusive categories and subcategories" (Freedman, 1994, p. 1). However, it is argued that although knowledgeable readers and writers can intuitively identify different types of texts and literary through their conventions (Bakhtin, 1986), those who have cognitive and

socially constructed tools to facilitate text recognition and production can understand and utilize specific genres better. These tools include notions about context, content, roles of readers and writers, and communicative values (Berkenkotter & Huckin, 1995; Michael A Halliday & Hasan, 1989; Purves, 1991). As a consequence, genre can be referred to as "complex oral or written responses by speakers or writers to the demands of a social context" (Johns, 2001, p. 3).

Johns (2001) identifies three different pedagogical genre approaches, namely The Sydney School Approach, English for Specific Purposes and The New Rhetoric. In *the Sydney School Approach*, instructors begin by modeling genres and explicating the features of those genres using Halliday's (1978) system of textual analysis while students are expected to reproduce these genres and "acquire" them. The *English for Specific Purposes* approach, as its name suggests, is an approach to teaching specific genres and training in the formal and functional features of the texts. This approach is based on Swales' (1985) text-based theory of moves which includes "analyzing features of texts and relating those features to the values and rhetorical purposes of discourse communities" (Johns, 2001, p. 7). *The New Rhetoric* is a contextual approach to genre in which students are taught to critically consider genres and their rhetorical and social purposes as well as their ideologies. In this approach, genre is seen as dynamic and evolving and starts (and sometimes ends) "with a discussion of the rhetorical situation rather than with a more specific analysis of lexio-grammatical elements within the text" (Johns, 2001, p. 9).

In short, there are various approaches to writing instruction in L2 and FL classrooms, but there is not "a definitive understanding of optimal methods for enhancing the composing skills" (Ferris & Hedgcock, 2013, p. 87). In fact, no direct evidence shows "which of the many methods a teacher uses is responsible for changes in students' writing" (Graham, MacArthur, & Fitzgerald, 2013, p. 11). However, every language teacher may agree that a teaching pedagogy is not the only factor that contributes to the learning outcomes of their students. Regarding L2 and FL composition instructions, other factors, such as learner-related variables, also contribute greatly to students' writing performance. These factors include writers' knowledge about writing such as linguistic knowledge (De Larios, Marin, & Murphy,

2001; Sasaki & Hirose, 1996; Schoonen, et al., 2003), knowledge about the topic (Hayes, 2001; McCutchen, 2000; Schoonen & De Glopper, 1996) or knowledge about the writing process (Saddler & Graham, 2007; Schoonen & De Glopper, 1996; Schoonen, et al., 2003) and the use of learning strategies (Alamargot & Chanquoy, 2001; Allal, Chanquoy, & Largy, 2004; Bereiter & Scardamalia, 1983; Fitzgerald, 1987; Schoonen, et al., 2003). In the scope of this study, only self-regulated learning, an important strategy in students' process of learning how to write will be addressed.

2.4 Self-regulated learning and writing

Self-regulated learning (SRL) "refers to the self-directive processes and self-beliefs that enable learners to transform their mental abilities, such as verbal attitude, into an academic performance skill, such as writing" (Zimmerman, 2008, p. 166). SRL is considered as an active and constructive process by Pintrich (2000). In this process, learners not only set their goals, monitor their learning, control their cognition, motivation and behavior but at the same time still take relevant features of their learning context and/or environment into consideration (Pintrich, 2000).

Because a great part of the skill in writing involves "the ability to exert deliberate control over the process of composing" (Flower & Hayes, 1980, p. 39), writing is commonly viewed as a difficult and demanding task which requires writers to have extensive self-regulation and attentional control (Kellogg, 1996). Regarding the relationship of self-regulation and writing, Schunk and Zimmerman (1997) relate self-regulation to "self-initiated thoughts, feelings and actions that writers use to attain their literary goals" (p. 76).

Self-regulation is thought to enhance writing performance because writing requires learners to self-regulate and control their attention to manage their writing environment (Bereiter & Scardamalia, 1987; Graham & R. Harris, 2000; Kellogg, 1987; Sarah Ransdell & Levy, 1996; Zimmerman & Risemberg, 1997). Planning, monitoring, evaluating and revising are some of the self-regulatory mechanisms which can be integrated into writing subroutines to help writers accomplish a writing task effectively (Zimmerman & Risemberg, 1997).

According to Zimmerman and Risemberg (1997), writing self-regulation processes can be classified into environmental, behavioral and personal processes. Self-regulation of e*nvironmental processes* is about self-regulating the writing setting which can be either physical or social. Environmental structuring and self-selected models, tutors, or books are two components of environment self-regulation. *Behavioral* self-regulation refers to the adaptive use of a performance strategy and consists of self-monitoring, self-consequences (self-rewarding or self-punishing) and self-verbalization. *Personal* self-regulation involves the adaptive use of cognitive and affective strategies. In Zimmerman and Risemberg's model, personal self-regulation processes include time planning and management, goal setting, setting self-evaluative standards, applying cognitive strategies and mental imaginary (*c.f.* p.79).

The next part will elaborate on *revision*, an important mechanism integrated in students' self-regulated writing subroutines, as claimed by Zimmerman and Risemberg (1997).

2.5 Revision

Haar (2006) defines *revision* as "the act of making changes to a written document to make it better" (p. 10). Revision is not only part of the ongoing writing process as described above (see *2.1 Writing)* but also takes place after writers finish their (first) drafts. Fitzgerald (1987), drawing on a number of other researchers' studies, concludes that "revision means making any changes at any point in the writing process" and changes can be made "at the time the text is first written, and/or after the text is first written" (p. 484). Bishop (2004) describes the revision job as "revising out", that is, extending and developing ideas as much as possible, then "revising in", cutting and pruning the text. Bishop states that "Revising out allows for revising in and often helps a writer as a result produce a better text because all investigations – of ideas, words, sentences, style, shape, and tone – are instructive to the interested writer" (p. 14).

L2 and FL writers revision's process is similar to that of L1 writers, but L2 and FL writers revise their texts more frequently than L1 writers (Hall, 1990; Lindgren, Spelman Miller, & Sullivan, 2008; Lindgren & Sullivan, 2006; Schoonen,

et al., 2009; M. Stevenson, Schoonen, & De Glopper, 2006) and their revisions focus more on form and "surface-level" errors, especially on grammar (De Larios, et al., 2002; Raimes, 2003; Silva, 1993).

Some studies indicate that revising helps ESL writers to improve their writing abilities. For example, Polio, Fleck and Leder (1998) found that students improved their writing accuracy in the revised essays and also between the beginning and the end of the semester. Fathman and Whalley (1990) found that students improved both text accuracy and content after revisions. However, Ferris (2011) concludes that revision only moderately improves the quality of the revised papers and increases the students' awareness of themselves as writers.

2.6 Presentation – Practice – Production (PPP)

English writing instruction in non-English-dominant Asian countries such as China, India and the Philippines has been historically dominated by writing theories and pedagogies developed in English-dominant countries (You, 2004). The traditional approach to teaching writing is organized around narration, description, exposition, and argumentation and strongly emphasizes correct form.

A common teaching model in most college EFL writing classrooms in Vietnamese settings is PPP, which begins with teachers' presentation of vocabulary, grammar structures, ways to brainstorm and organize ideas, followed by some isolated practice on grammatical rules, cohesion and coherence, and ending with a teacher's written comments on students' written output. In this approach, teachers and students focus on whether the latter's products are readable, grammatically correct and comply with discourse conventions (Nunan, 1989).

PPP is a type of synthetic approach to language instruction in which the target language is broken down into small discrete items. Teachers' actions are central to choosing items to be learned, and teachers play a crucial role in conveying those items to the students (Ducker, 2012). Being recommended to pre-service teachers as a useful teaching procedure from 1960 onwards (Harmer, 1991), PPP consists of the three stages of *presentation*, *practice* and *production* as described by Byrne (1976), Samuda and Bygate (2008) and Sato (2010). According to Sato, in a typical PPP

lesson, the teacher introduces a target language item in the *presentation* stage. In the *practice* stage, students practice the target items by drilling, practicing patterns or by answering questions. In the *production* stage, students produce new language items in combination with other language items they have learned previously.

According to skill acquisition theory, PPP is effective because this theory implies that learners acquire language well in three consecutive stages: the cognitive, associative and autonomous stages (DeKeyser, 1998). More particularly, the target grammar should be first taught to learners in the cognitive stage. This stage is followed by an associative stage which includes activities or practice to develop learners' acquired declarative knowledge into procedural knowledge. Last, learners will be provided with less focused communicative activities to enhance proceduralization and automatization in the autonomous stage.

PPP is attractive to teachers because language structures and language functions can be systematically organized in a syllabus. With a list of linguistic contents in a PPP syllabus, teachers and learners can easily identify what will be learned and what will be tested (Lap, 2005). Moreover, PPP is appealing to language teachers and learners because it reflects a notion of "practice makes perfect" and "allows the teacher to control the content and pace of each lesson" as well as provides "a clear teacher role" (Thornbury and Harmer, 1999 and Skehan, 2003 as cited in Carless, 2009, p. 51). In other words, PPP provides teachers with the power to control their classrooms (P. Skehan, 1998).

However, since the 1990s PPP has received widespread criticism from scholars such as Lewis (1995) and Willis and Willis (1996). These critics claim that PPP is too linear and behaviorist in nature, and in this way, PPP does not take learners' readiness into consideration (Ellis, 2003). Thus, PPP is unlikely to lead to the successful acquisition of the forms being taught (Skehan, 1996). In addition, Thornbury and Harmer (1999) claim that PPP assumes that accuracy precedes fluency, which is often not the case. Last but not least, PPP is teacher-centered, which does not fit learner-centered frameworks being promoted in contemporary views on education (Harmer, 1991).

Despite the criticism, "the PPP lesson structure has been widely used in language teaching materials and continues in modified form to be used today" (Richards, 2005, p. 8). According to Richard, many lessons in contemporary materials are structured around the three phases of PPP. Regarding writing instruction, few empirical studies have been conducted to investigate the impact of PPP on students' writing performance. Kim (2009), in her experience as a writing teacher in Korea, found that PPP was helpful for her IELTS writing classrooms because step-by-step guidance helped her students feel more confident in presenting their opinions in essays, and PPP also gave her more control over the students' learning process so that she could help them better.

According to Perry, Hutchinson and Thauberger (2007), low self-regulated learning classrooms are those in which students are engaged in activities that focus on specific writing skills apart from connected discourse and in which students have limited choices and opportunities to self-evaluate and control challenges. There is no research available in the literature that addresses the level of self-regulation that PPP provides to students. However, with the step-by-step instructions provided by the teacher in a PPP writing classroom, we tend to doubt that PPP will provide students with many opportunities to develop their self-regulated learning.

2.7 Task-based language teaching

In response to the above-mentioned weaknesses of PPP, task-based language teaching has been proposed as a more powerful approach to the teaching of communicative skills. Proponents of TBLT (e.g. R. Ellis, 2003; P. Skehan, 1996) generally argue that conventional approaches such as PPP do not reflect current understanding of SLA research. In Asia Pacific countries, TBLT has "emerged as a central concept from a study of curriculum guidelines and syllabi" (Nunan, 2006, p. 193). In some countries such as China, Taiwan, Hong Kong, TBLT has been strongly promoted in English language education policies (Butler, 2011).

Contrary to PPP teaching, TBLT is an analytical approach to language pedagogy (Ducker, 2012) which exposes students to holistic chunks of contextualized, functional language that they can analyze themselves. Central to

TBLT is a task that learners are required to perform (Prabhu, 1987); new language is expected to be generated in the process of completing the task.

Various designs have been proposed for a task-based lesson (Estaire & Zanón, 1994; Prabhu, 1987; Skehan, 1996; J. Willis, 1996). On the basis of a review of all these designs, Ellis (2006) synthesizes the three basic phases that reflect the order of a task-based lesson. The first phase is the *pre-task* phase which includes various activities that teachers and students can undertake before they start the task. This phase aims to prepare students to perform the task in ways that will promote acquisition. Different from the *presentation* phase of the PPP approach which gives students separate items of language to learn, the pre-task phase of TBLT provides students with holistic language input that they have to analyze by themselves.

The second phase is the *during task* phase which centers around the task itself and affords various instructional options of *task-performance* or *process-based learning*. Task-performance options may include, for instance, deciding whether (1) to require students to perform the task under time pressure, (2) to allow students to access the input while performing a task, and (3) to introduce some surprising element such as giving additional information during task performance (as in Skehan and Foster's (1997) research). Process options, on the other hand, concern the way in which the discourse arising from the task is enacted.

The final phase is the *post task* which involves procedures for following-up on task performance. Three major pedagogical goals for the post task phase in Ellis' view include: (1) providing an opportunity for repeating the task, (2) encouraging learners to reflect on how they perform the task, and (3) giving learners opportunities to pay attention to form or difficult grammar structures. It can be seen from Ellis' (2006) synthesis that a task-based framework does not predetermine a fixed structure for a lesson but allows for creativity and variety in the choice of options in each phase.

A key feature of TBLT is that form is best acquired when the focus is on meaning (Prabhu, 1987). TBLT proponents state that tasks enable learners to learn through communication and engagement (e.g. R. Ellis, 2003; Prabhu, 1987). In addition, tasks not only provide learners with rich exposure to a wider range of

language, they can also adjust the input according to the learners' level (R. Ellis, 2003). In addition, a task-based approach is assumed to have a positive impact on motivation. More specifically, TBLT gives learners real opportunities to do things with the language, and if these opportunities are at the appropriate level of difficulty and if learners are properly guided, they are very likely to complete each task successfully and develop a sense of achievement, which in turn, results in enhanced motivation (Willis & Willis, 2011).

Nevertheless, critics of TBLT argue that it lacks sufficient classroom-based empirical evidence to prove its claims regarding its superiority over more form-focused approaches (e.g. Bruton, 2002; Sheen, 2003; Swan, 2005). However, although the need to demonstrate the efficacy of TBLT in classroom contexts has been acknowledged (e.g. R. Ellis, 2009; Samuda & Bygate, 2008), plenty of small-scale studies have demonstrated that task-based learning does lead to acquisition (e.g. R. Ellis, Tanaka, & Yamazaki, 1994; Takimoto, 2009). Critics also argue that beginner learners need to be taught grammar because they will not be able to communicate without it (e.g. Bruton, 2005; Sheen, 2003; Swan, 2005) and that TBLT provides learners with less new language than traditional approaches (e.g. Sato, 2010; Swan, 2005). However, these objections mistakenly "assume that TBLT requires production right from the start – when learners are beginners" (Ellis, 2009, p. 237). Ellis argues that TBLT can be both input-providing and output-prompting. With beginners, TBLT is an appropriate approach when it emphasizes listening and reading tasks. On the other hand, there is evidence that TBLT enables learners to develop not only their ability to comprehend but also the grammatical resources for their speaking and writing.

In short, TBLT represents a clear innovation in teaching philosophy and methodology as compared to previous form-focused teaching approaches such as PPP (Ogilvie & Dunn, 2010). In teaching philosophy, TBLT aims to provide second language learners to acquire the target language through using it in a meaningful way. In teaching methodology, TBLT encourages learners to act as language users through their analysis of language structures and forms with which they have difficulties during the task completion.

In this respect, Dyer (1996) claims that L2 composition should be shifted from pure product or process approaches to task-based writing instruction that "merges process and product in the concept of the communicative 'task'" (p. 314) for three reasons: (1) L1 students' writing has been shown to improve as a result of task-based work as in Hillocks' (1986) study manifests, (2) L2 writers need to perform similar writing tasks in an L1 academic environment such as answering essay questions or writing a research paper, and (3) L2 acquisition is likely to occur in "meaningful chunks such as in task-completion", not in "structural/functional units" (Dyer, 1996, p. 316). However, there are few empirical studies that have investigated the specific impact of TBLT on students' writing proficiency. One of those efforts was made by Sholihah (2013) who conducted an action research on the impact of TBLT on the writing performance of 33 Indonesian tenth-grade students when they learned to write descriptive texts. The study reveals that TBLT could (1) improve students' writing ability in term of vocabulary, mechanics, grammar, content and organization, (2) develop students' ability in expressing ideas, and (3) encourage students to write and increase their participation in writing classes.

Research indicates that students may develop their self-regulation effectively in those classrooms where they are involved in complex meaningful tasks, that is, tasks that "address multiple goals, extend over time, integrate cognitive processes, and allow for the creation of a variety of products" (Perry, Phillips, & Dowler, 2004, p. 1857); where learners have chances to control their learning processes and products (Many, Fyfe, Lewis, & Mitchell, 1996); and where they have opportunities to evaluate their own work (Neuman & Roskos, 1997; Perry, 1998). In the same vein, Paris and Paris (2001) claim that a task-based approach will promote and necessitate SRL if activities are designed carefully with teachers providing appropriate modelling and scaffolding.

The theoretical background above reveals that western researchers advocate the effectiveness of TBLT in second language learning and teaching (P. Skehan, 1996; Van den Branden, et al., 2009; D. Willis & Willis, 2008) partly (among other things) because of the favorable conditions that are created for students in a TBLT classroom to develop their self-regulation (Many, et al., 1996; Neuman & Roskos,

1997; Perry, et al., 2004). Therefore, it seems sensible that modifying classroom practice in an Asian context toward the orientation of TBLT will possibly improve the effectiveness of ELT writing education.

2.8 Challenges of applying TBLT in Asia

Various researchers, such as Nunan (2006), Littlewood (2007), Adams and Newton (2009), have documented the introduction of task-based language teaching (TBLT), which is advocated in many Asia Pacific countries such as mainland China, Hong Kong, Thailand or Vietnam in curriculum documents and syllabi. However, Adams and Newton's (2009) review of recent and earlier research findings shows that curricular policies in Asia which promote the use of TBLT at the national level "do not automatically translate into the use of TBLT in actual English language classrooms" (p.2).

Some studies in this context find that many school teachers appear to prefer long-standing PPP approaches (Tang, 2004; Tong, 2005), and PPP is still quite pervasive in Asia (Littlewood, 2007). Challenges for TBLT in an Asian context, which will be summarized in the following section, can explain much of Asian teachers' hesitation in implementing TBLT in their classrooms.

Across Asian contexts, three different types of constraints have been identified when TBLT is implemented in primary and secondary schools. Studies have highlighted constraints relating to teacher beliefs, institutional and classroom factors, and the socio-cultural and economic environment.

There are three typical *teacher-related constraints*. First, teachers' proficiency in the foreign language is below the level required to adequately support learners completing open-ended real-life communicative tasks. When investigating 228 EFL teachers at 38 different middle and high schools across South Korea, Jeon and Hahn (2006) found that their lack of English proficiency was a major reason for avoiding task-based instruction. Other studies by Butler (2005) and Li (1998) similarly found that teachers avoided implementing TBLT because of their inadequate proficiency in English.

Second, teachers are uncertain about their understanding of TBLT. This uncertainty, in fact, is the most important reason why Korean teachers were reluctant to conduct TBLT (Jeon & Hahn, 2006). In addition, fragmentary understanding of TBLT is also a major factor limiting the teachers' implementation of curricular innovation in mainland China (Cheng & Wang, 2004) and South Korea (Li, 1998).

Third, teachers think that TBLT does not fit in well with actual teaching conditions, defined in terms of time availability, textbook materials, and examinations (Carless, 2003; Jarvis & Atsilarat, 2004; Jeon & Hahn, 2006). For instance, in his study with primary English teachers in Hong Kong, Carless (2003) found that the teachers were concerned about the impact of time on task-based teaching. Susan, one of the teachers in the study, claimed that she did not have enough time to do all the activities in the textbook, so she had to select only some of them to teach. Meanwhile, Priscilla, another teacher in Carless' study, was concerned about a possible reduction in the time spent on written activities or grammatically focused activities.

In addition to these teacher-related barriers, *institutional and classroom* constraints are also of great concern to EFL teachers applying TBLT in Asia. One of them is the psychological burden generated by norm-referenced and form-focused examinations which keeps teachers in Asian classrooms from teaching communicatively. It is a dilemma for Asian teachers to choose between the need to prepare students for examinations and the top-down policy that promotes the use of communicative tasks in the classroom (Loi, 2011). Studies reveal the pressure to prepare students for norm-referenced, form-focused semester examinations and national examinations in Mainland China (Hu, 2005), Hong Kong (Carless, 2003, 2007; Deng & Carless, 2009), South Korea (Li, 1998), Japan (Gorsuch, 2000), and Vietnam (Canh, 2008). More specifically, Carless (2007) notes that multiple-choice testing formats administered by external assessors make Hong Kong teachers return to explicit instruction. In the same vein, Canh (2008) observed from a case study about curricular innovation at the secondary level that the use of multiple-choice tests in the General Education Diploma Examination and University Entrance Examination discouraged Vietnamese high school teachers from implementing communicative

teaching. Littlewood (2007) identifies this issue as a failure of assessment policy "to keep pace with other developments in the curriculum" (p.245).

The fact that teachers very often teach by the book constitutes another barrier. Teachers in Hong Kong (Carless, 2003), Korea (Jeon & Hahn, 2006), Thailand (Watson Todd, 2006) and Vietnam (Canh, 2008) either found that their textbooks did not support task-based instruction, or refused to transform their old ways of teaching even when task-based syllabi became available. Moreover, time and especially the lack thereof was identified as another major obstacle to adopting task-based teaching. Particularly, heavy schedules imposed on Hong Kong primary teachers (Carless, 2003), lack of preparation time in Korean schools (Jeon & Hahn, 2006), or time pressure from heavy workloads in Thailand (Watson Todd, 2006) have discouraged these teachers from actually preparing for and/or implementing task-based teaching. Class time in these EFL classrooms is usually limited to three or four hours a week. Time limits make teachers feel discouraged from providing communicative tasks that they believe are neither worthwhile nor satisfactory for the concerns of their students as well as those of the parents about the importance of form-focused national examinations (Carless, 2003; Cheng & Wang, 2004; Gorsuch, 2000).

Asian teachers are also confronted with large classes in which students with very different levels of proficiency in the foreign language sit together. The sheer number of students per class makes learner-centered teaching extremely difficult. In some Asian schools, discipline and order are important values, so many teachers feel that the accompanying collaborative learning tasks may affect discipline in neighboring classrooms. Therefore, they refrain from using this kind of noisy approaches (Carless, 2004; Li, 1998). Moreover, large classes are difficult for teachers to manage, especially when implementing TBLT (Jarvis & Atsilarat, 2004; Jeon & Hahn, 2006; Li, 1998; Nishino & Watanabe, 2008) because it is more difficult to control the interaction and noise generated by task-based activities (Littlewood, 2007). However, it is worth noticing that this applies foremost to speaking activities and not so much to tasks focusing on development of listening, reading and writing skills(Adams & Newton, 2009).

Different proficiency levels of students in the same classroom may present an additional challenge to teachers with respect to choosing, designing and organizing communicative activities (Adams, 2009; Bock, 2000), a finding applicable to mainland Chinese (Li, 2003), Hong Kong (Carless, 2004), Japanese (Eguchi & Eguchi, 2006), South Korean (Lee, 2005), Thai (Watson Todd, 2006) and Vietnamese classrooms (Canh, 2008).

The final type of constraint voiced among Asian teachers relates to *social-cultural barriers*. First, most Asian EFL teaching takes place in a social environment where English is not commonly used outside the classroom (Nishino & Watanabe, 2008), which discourages students from exerting prolonged efforts to improve their communicative competence in the foreign language classroom. Second, in many countries in Asia, the teacher was traditionally seen as the possessor and messenger of profound knowledge and the student as the recipient of that authoritative knowledge (Butler, 2011). Such a view results in an authoritative teacher attitude as well as in the expectation among students that teachers will tell them what to do, which to a large extent undermines students' confidence to initiate learning or look for opportunities to further their language competence independently from the teacher (Jarvis & Atsilarat, 2004). Last but not least, some Asian conceptions consider *teaching* and *learning* as *transmitting* and *receiving knowledge* rather than "using knowledge for immediate purposes" (Hu, 2005, p. 653). Thus, Asian teachers prefer teacher-fronted modes to more learner-centered approaches.

In sum, recent research across Asian contexts has documented numerous challenges accompanying the implementation of TBLT in Asian primary and secondary schools. Not many studies have been conducted to investigate the implementation of TBLT at tertiary level in an Asian context, a gap that this study tries to close. In addition, it is surprising that there is not any research that compares the impact of PPP and TBLT on students' learning outcomes, especially with regard to writing performance. This research, therefore, is such an attempt.

Chapter 3

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHOD

This chapter presents the research methodology of the current study. The chapter begins with the four research questions that the study aims to answer. Four hypotheses are then formulated based on what has been claimed about PPP and TBLT and their applications in Asia. Next, the institutional context of the study will be described. The chapter continues with a detailed description of the design of the two writing courses and the teaching in the two classrooms. Four measures of students' written output and three measures of students' self-regulation will be described in the final part of this chapter.

3.1 Research questions and hypotheses

3.1.1 Research questions

The following research questions will be addressed in this study:

1. To what extent do PPP and TBLT help students develop their writing performance?
2. What is the differential effect of a PPP and TBLT approach to writing education on the quality of Vietnamese students' English written output?
3. To what extent do PPP and TBLT help students develop their self-regulatory writing strategies?
4. What is the differential effect of a PPP and TBLT approach to writing education on Vietnamese students' self-regulatory writing strategies?

3.1.2 Research hypotheses

Four hypotheses are formulated based on what is currently known about PPP and TBLT in their relation to writing education and conditions for students to develop their self-regulation.

Hypothesis 1: Students in both the PPP and TBLT group will develop their writing performance to a certain extent. This hypothesis is formulated based on the proponents' claims about the effectiveness of both PPP and TBLT. For PPP, step-by-step instructions will help students acquire language well through three consecutive stages, namely the cognitive, associative and autonomous stage (DeKeyser, 1998). Therefore, they are expected to produce improved written output after the PPP writing course. Meanwhile, for TBLT, rich exposure to language and opportunities to do functional things with the language at students' proficiency levels are likely to help students complete their writing tasks successfully (R. Ellis, 2003).

Hypothesis 2: Since the main focus of PPP is on form, students in the PPP group are hypothesized to show significantly greater development with regard to form-related aspects of their writing performance than the students in the TBLT group. Meanwhile, since the main focus of TBLT is on meaning, students in the TBLT group are hypothesized to show greater development with regard to meaning-related aspect of their writing performance than those in the PPP group.

Hypothesis 3: Because students in the TBLT group have to conduct the writing task mostly by themselves while their fellow students in the PPP group are provided with learning materials and the teacher's instructions, it is hypothesized that by the end of the writing courses, students in the TBLT group will develop their self-regulatory writing strategies significantly while those in the PPP group will not.

Hypothesis 4: The same reasoning in hypothesis 3 can be applied to the fourth research question. Therefore, it is hypothesized that by the end of the writing courses, students in the TBLT group will report to use significantly more self-regulatory writing strategies than their fellow students in the PPP group.

3.2 The institutional context of the study

This section describes the context of Can Tho University (CTU) in Vietnam, where the study was conducted. In Vietnam, public universities account for the largest portion in the higher educational system. CTU shares all the features of a typical public university. The university operates under the MOET guidelines and recruits its students through a national entrance exam. Each university in Vietnam is given a quota of the number of students that they can recruit every year based on the availability of staff and infrastructure of that university in that specific year. For CTU, this admission quota is 5,000 students a year. CTU is the largest public university in the Mekong Delta region of Vietnam with 112 training programs, including 87 undergraduate, 29 postgraduate and 11 doctoral programs. In 2013, the total enrolment in undergraduate programs was more than 24,000 students.

Students of CTU come from both urban and rural areas of thirteen cities and provinces in the region. Class sizes vary according to the courses students take, but are usually large, with an average number of 50 students per class.

Like other public universities, the institution follows the national curriculum framework stipulated by the MOET. As prescribed by the MOET, any undergraduate program must offer two components of knowledge: compulsory general knowledge and professional knowledge. MOET issues a number of documents on general knowledge required for almost all training programs. Meanwhile, each university

designs and structures the professional knowledge base depending on its specific training program.

The English Language Studies program, which the participants of the current study follow, consists of 120 credits that students have to complete in four years of their undergraduate study. Thirty-five credits constitute compulsory general knowledge, forty-seven are reserved for basic professional knowledge and thirty-eight provide advanced professional knowledge. Each credit is equivalent to 15 fifty-minute classroom periods. Forty out of forty-seven credits of the basic professional knowledge belong to the English as a foreign language (EFL) component of the study program. This EFL component aims at teaching students skills of reading, writing, listening, speaking and knowledge of grammar and pronunciation, which is provided in the first two years of the study program.

3.3 Research participants

One hundred and thirty-eight students (27 males, 111 females) from 18 to 19 (mean age: 18.15) enrolled in a freshman English Language Learning program participated in this study. These students had passed a national entrance exam with an English test including eighty multiple-choice questions to test students' grammar knowledge and reading skills. Their writing skills were tested in an indirect way in this test, that is, students were asked to choose the sentence that best combined pairs of given sentences. These students were randomly assigned to the PPP and the TBLT class with 69 students in each class. There were 14 males in the PPP groups and 13 males in the TBLT groups. A chi-square test was performed to determine if males and females were distributed differently between the PPP and TBLT groups. The test failed to indicate a significant difference, $X^2(1, N = 138) = .046$, $p = .83$; phi = .018.

A preliminary survey with closed questions administered before the course shows that these students had had very little experience in writing paragraphs and had not been exposed to TBLT before. By contrast, all of the students had experienced seven years of learning English as a foreign language in high school where heavily form-focused approaches were and still are the standard teaching methodologies by

all accounts. They had been exposed to English language teaching for 2 hours a week (on average) prior to the onset of the study.

An independent sample t-test conducted with the entrance exam marks showed that the two groups were not significantly different from each other as far as their English foreign language proficiency was concerned (M = 4.98, SD = 1.09 and M = 5.17, SD = 1.26 for the PPP and TBLT groups respectively; t(136) = 1.02, p = .31; d = .16).

The two conditions were taught by the same teacher who had ten years of experience teaching writing skills to undergraduate students. The teacher had been trained in how to teach English writing as a foreign language using PPP in her teacher training program. For the past three years, she had been using TBLT in her classroom based on what she had learned about TBLT from reading books and consulting with teachers who had built up hands-on experience with teaching in a task-based manner.

3.4 The writing courses

The writing course in the study is the first of the five writing courses and belongs to the basic professional knowledge of the English Language Studies program in CTU. This compulsory writing course is named Paragraph Writing and accounts for two credits with thirty fifty-minute classroom periods.

The writing courses lasted for ten weeks, three fifty-minute periods per week, from September 19 to November 27, 2011. Students learned to write descriptive paragraphs during the first five weeks and argumentative paragraphs during the remaining five weeks. In the course of these five weeks, students had to complete two similar writing tasks for each text type. The first writing task could be drafted and revised maximally three times while the second one could be worked on twice (because after completing the first task students were expected to have gained more experience in writing this particular text). Sample prompts for these writing tasks can be found in Appendix 1.

3.4.1 The PPP writing course

For the PPP course, in the *preparatory* phase, a complete set of materials (see Appendix 2) with numerous activities for brainstorming, presentation, practice and production stages was developed based on, and inspired by, two commercial textbooks which had long been used by the teachers at the university. In the *presentation* phase, students were required to brainstorm ideas for a place they wanted to describe (for descriptive tasks) or the opinion they wanted to voice about an issue (for argumentative tasks). They were provided with vocabulary, grammar structures, and cohesive devices that the teacher thought they would need in their texts. It is worth mentioning that besides focusing on form, students in the PPP condition also had a few opportunities to focus on meaning in the presentation phase. For example, they were asked to brainstorm ideas for their texts by completing an information sheet about a city they wanted to describe and provided with a list of vocabulary which they could use in their texts later (*c.f.* Part 1: *Before You Write*, Appendix 2).

Then, in the *practice* stage, exercises such as choosing the best topic sentence from the list, writing descriptive sentences or arguments from prompts, and combining simple sentences to make a compound or complex sentence were done by the students before they actually wrote their own texts in the *production* stage. After the production stage, students in the PPP group checked their own texts using a checklist available in the learning materials (a sample checklist can be found at the end of Appendix 2). With this list, students could check if their texts included typical text features that had been part of the instruction in the presentation and practice phases.

In addition to the three phases of the PPP approach, students had chances to receive feedback from the teacher in a revision stage. After students submitted their texts to the teacher, they received her feedback in a class session which took place a week later. Responding to the first drafts of PPP students, the teacher wrote down her specific comments about the content of the text, its coherence, text organization, grammar and other issues related to accuracy in writing such as spelling. The errors that students had made in their first drafts were highlighted and the teacher wrote

down some abbreviations that represented the types of errors (for example, *sp.* for spelling error, *VT* for verb tense, etc.). Upon receiving these comments, students revised and rewrote their texts. Few students asked for help from their friends because from the teachers' comments, it appeared clear to them what they could do to improve their texts. For the second drafts, the teacher simply checked whether the students had improved their first drafts in accordance with the feedback she gave. Thus, most students only had to make minor revisions when writing their third drafts unless they had misunderstood the teacher's comments on the first draft. Examples of a student's revised texts and teacher's comments can be found in Appendix 4. It can be seen from the teacher's comments in the first draft that she gave feedback on the text content, or *meaning* in the first comment while other comments were on form (sentence structures, cohesive device, and errors). In fact, focusing on form more than on meaning when giving feedback to students' written output is very common among Vietnamese teachers because many of them consider a good text as an error-free text (Tran, 2007).

3.4.2 The TBLT writing course

For the TBLT course, writing tasks were designed for the purpose of generating communicative needs which learners needed to meet. In addition, two task sheets (see Appendix 3) which clarified a possible procedure for task completion were designed in accordance with Ellis' (2003) definition of a task. Each task sheet was a work plan that required learners to use language in a meaningful way to achieve their learning outcome – a written text. In particular, the students had to write a text in which they shared personal experiences about a place they had been to with their friends ("descriptive tasks") and a text in which they expressed their opinion on an issue that could influence their personal learning and living conditions ("argumentative tasks"). In the process of completing these writing tasks, students were supposed to give primary attention to meaning, sharing their experience of a city they liked or convincing the university staff to take an action that would result in better learning and living conditions, which resembles the way language is used in the real world.

In the *pre-task* phase of the TBLT condition, students constructed their own writing plans through analyzing text samples (models) provided in the task sheet, planning their own writing, and exchanging ideas with classmates. Then, in the *task-cycle*, students wrote their texts, drawing on the insights they had gathered during the pre-task phase. They were encouraged to use dictionaries, the internet and grammar books and to help each other put their thoughts to paper in all stages of the writing process. Finally, in the *post-task* phase students reflected on their own texts, exchanged texts with their friends, provided and received feedback, and applied their own criteria of text quality to their own and their peers' texts.

In the TBLT condition, the teacher's comments on students' first drafts focused on meaning issues only. Some popular comments on these drafts include *"This description did not convince me to like the city you describe."* for a weak descriptive text or *"With some modifications, your description could become more interesting."* for a better text. After reading these general comments, students discussed with their writing partners how they could make their texts more interesting to the readers. Since they were only given very general comments, they had to figure out by themselves and with the help from their friends why their texts were not good enough. While doing so, some of them also took other aspects of their texts into consideration, including the organization, coherence, cohesion, vocabulary choice as well as grammar and spelling of their texts.

Later, in the second drafts, the teacher gave more specific comments on both form and meaning. Students' errors in these drafts were treated in the same way as those in PPP students' first drafts, that is, errors were highlighted and labelled. Thus, when writing the third drafts, students in the TBLT group had opportunities to notice the grammatical structures that they misused in addition to revising other aspects of their texts such as content, coherence and cohesion. Examples of a student's revised texts and teacher's comments can be found in Appendix 5. In fact, after receiving the teacher's feedback on the first draft, the student in Appendix 5 focused mostly on improving the *meaning* of the text by rewriting the topic sentence and adding some more information into the description. Only after receiving the teacher's feedback on the second draft did the student pay attention to the *form* of the text by correcting the

errors he or she had made. The third draft was much better than the first one when students focused on both the meaning (in the first draft revision) and form (in the second draft revision) this time.

Form-focused activities were conducted as a part of this *post-task* stage with students' common grammar errors being analyzed and reviewed. These activities helped students focus on form after they had written and revised their texts for several times.

3.4.3 Similarities and differences of the PPP and TBLT writing courses

From the descriptions of the PPP and TBLT courses above, four similarities can be noted: first, both groups were provided with some documents to work with (learning materials for the PPP group and task sheets for the TBLT group); second, they both received the teacher's feedback on their texts; third, students in both PPP and TBLT conditions could revise their texts several times before submitting their final writing products; and fourth, both groups had opportunities for learning some grammar structures they used in their own texts.

The differences between the two writing courses are described below. A summary of the differences between the two groups in learning how to write a descriptive paragraph are listed chronologically in Table 1, from the presentation phase to the revision stage. The learning cycle was similar for the argumentative paragraphs. Below I will also describe the differences between the two approaches in terms of fostering self-regulation.

Table 1: Differences of the PPP and TBLT conditions on how to write descriptive paragraphs

Week	**PPP**	**TBLT**
1	*Presentation phase*	*Pre-task phase*
	- Brainstorming ideas - Vocabulary exercises - Instructions on how to write topic sentences, organize ideas, write concluding sentences and titles - Grammar lessons on cohesive devices and descriptive adjectives	- Studying sample texts first individually and later with a partner of students' choice - Listing features of good descriptive paragraphs - Planning stage

2	*Practice*	*Task-cycle*
	- Exercises on vocabulary, topic sentences, text organization, concluding sentences, cohesive devices and descriptive adjectives	- Writing a first draft (with access to internet, dictionaries and grammar books)
	Production	
	- Writing a first draft (with access to internet, dictionaries and grammar books)	
	1st draft revision	
	- Individual revision with a teacher-provided checklist	- Individual revision with one's self-composed checklist from the pre-task phase - Collaborative revision/peer feedback
3	*Teacher's feedback + 2nd revision of 1st draft*	
	- Comprehensive teacher feedback on accuracy, content and structure - Indirect feedback on errors with labels - Individual revision - Submitting 2nd draft	- Teacher's indirect feedback on content - Individual revision and peer feedback - Submitting 2nd draft
4	*Teacher's feedback and students' revision of 2nd draft*	*Teacher's feedback, students' revision of 2nd draft and post-task phase*
	- Comprehensive teacher's feedback on accuracy, content and structure - Individual revision of draft 2 - Submitting 3rd draft	- Comprehensive teacher's feedback on accuracy, content and structure - Individual revision of draft 2 - Form-focused activities - Submitting 3rd draft
5	*Writing another text of the same genre*	
	- Reviewing knowledge on vocabulary, grammar structures, text organization, topic and concluding sentences under teacher's instruction. - Writing another descriptive text of a different topic	- Writing another descriptive text of a different topic

Presentation stage vs. pre-task stage

The presentation stage of the PPP condition and the pre-task phase of the TBLT condition strongly differed. For the PPP condition, vocabulary lists and instructions on grammar structures, how to write a topic sentence, supporting ideas, and a concluding sentence, and how to organize ideas in a paragraph were given to students during the *presentation* stage. For the TBLT group, in the *pre-task* phase, students were provided with five sample paragraphs. These paragraphs differed in terms of the amount of information included in the texts, the variety of vocabulary, and the way the ideas linked. No grammatical or spelling errors were included in the sample texts. Students were first asked to analyze these samples and classify them into good and bad descriptive or argumentative paragraphs by themselves and with a writing partner. They then listed features of a good descriptive or argumentative paragraph. Next, they were invited to plan their own paragraphs based on the characteristics of a good text they had analyzed.

It can be seen that students in the TBLT condition had more opportunities to develop their self-regulation than those in the PPP condition. First, while students in the TBLT condition had to analyze the sample texts to find better models of writing for themselves, the PPP students were guided step-by-step on how to write their texts. In this process, students in the TBLT condition could choose any place in the classroom they felt comfortable to sit and any partner to work with as long as they could finish these subtasks the most effectively. Meanwhile, those in the PPP condition only followed the teacher's instructions and found no reason to choose another place to sit or a friend to work with. Second, when students in the TBLT condition built writing plans for their texts by themselves by consulting any resources such as the sample texts given by the teacher, their friends, any books they had, or even the internet, those in the PPP condition mostly worked with the materials given to them by their teacher.

Practice and production vs. task-cycle

For the PPP condition, exercises to put the vocabulary, grammar structure and paragraph writing knowledge into practice were assigned to students in the *practice*

stage. These exercises had been designed to prepare students to write their own texts. For example, they were asked to choose the best topic sentence from a list given in one exercise and were required to write their own topic sentence in another exercise. After the practice stage, students wrote their paragraphs in the *production* stage.

Meanwhile, in the TBLT condition, students wrote their first drafts inspired by what they had learned from reading and analyzing sample paragraphs and using different resources such as bilingual dictionaries (to look up vocabulary), grammar books (to check a grammar rule they were not sure of), internet (to search for interesting ideas), or their friends and the teacher (to ask for help).

Once again, students in the TBLT condition were provided with more favorable conditions to develop their self-regulation. They were encouraged to consult as many resources as they could because they were not provided with grammar structures, vocabularies and knowledge about text structures the way the students in the PPP condition were. Students in the TBLT may have had more chances for developing (1) their environmental SR by self-selecting models, tutors or books; (2) their structural SR by self-monitoring their work and rewarding themselves something after working hard; and (3) their personal SR by managing their time, self-evaluating their text while writing and imagining a vivid image of the place they were describing.

Students' first-draft revision

After the students in the two conditions finished their first drafts, they revised their texts before submitting them to the teacher. Students in the PPP group checked their texts using the checklist available in the learning materials. Meanwhile, students in the TBLT group reflected on their own texts using the list of features of a good descriptive or argumentative paragraph they composed in the pre-task and then exchanged texts with their friends for feedback. Students could make any changes they wanted at this stage before submitting their texts to the teacher.

At this revision stage, students in the TBLT condition also had a better chance to self-regulate their learning through building up their individual checklist while those in the PPP condition could find such a list in their learning materials.

Teacher's feedback on the first drafts and students' revision

Students in the two conditions received different types of feedback and produced their second drafts in different ways. For the PPP condition, the first drafts were commented on by the teacher who focused on content, organization and form. Students' errors were underlined and abbreviations of errors such as *sp.* for spelling, *vt.* for verb tense were noted by the teacher so that students could revise them in their second drafts. On the other hand, in her feedback on the first drafts of students in the TBLT condition, the teacher focused on content, commenting on whether the descriptions were interesting or not interesting enough and whether the arguments were convincing or not (see Appendix 4 and Appendix 5 for samples of teacher's feedback and students' revision).

Because of the teacher's different types of feedback, students in the TBLT condition had to figure out how to improve their texts by themselves or by seeking help from their friends because they did not receive as specific feedback as the students in the PPP condition. As a result, they had more chances to develop their self-regulation skills when choosing a friend to ask for help, by rereading their texts again and again until they found the weaknesses in their texts, for example.

Teacher's feedback on students' second drafts and their revisions

For the PPP group, the teacher continued to give detailed feedback on students' texts. Revising the text for the second time, students did not have to change many things in their second drafts because most of the problems had already been addressed by the teacher and revised in the second drafts.

For the TBLT group, feedback on the second drafts focused on form, after which students rewrote their texts for the third time. They then focused not only on the content of their texts but also on the form. In the *post-task* phase, typical grammatical errors in students' texts were compiled and presented by the teacher to the whole class. Students were then asked to comment on how they would correct these errors and what they should have noticed to avoid these errors in the first place.

Because of the differences between the two teaching conditions, students in the two conditions spent their time differently. As for time management, students of

the PPP group spent about sixty percent of lesson time on the presentation and practice stages, fifteen percent on writing and twenty-five percent on revising their texts. In contrast, students in the TBLT group were free to choose how much time they would devote to each sub-task, but most of them spent about thirty percent of their lesson time on the pre-task, thirty percent on the task-cycle and forty percent on the post-tasks activities as the video observations of the classroom and pair work activities pointed out.

In short, from the above descriptions, it can be seen that students in the two groups focused on different aspects of their writing texts in different phases of the instruction. In addition, the TBLT condition also created more opportunities for students to develop their self-regulation than the PPP condition.

3.5 Measures of writing performance

In assessing the quality of students' written output, different studies have focused on different text features but in general communicative effectiveness, content, organization, language use and fluency are the four most common features that teachers and researchers focus on when evaluating a written output (*c.f.* a review by Verheyden, Van den Branden, Rijlaarsdam, Van den Bergh, & De Maeyer, 2010).

In the current study, four measures were used to evaluate students' writing performance between time points: *vocd* (MacWhinney, 2000) to measure *lexical diversity*, ratio of grammatical errors per tokens to measure *linguistic accuracy*, an analytical grading rubric to evaluate the *structural properties* of the texts and an analytical grading rubric to assess their *communicative effectiveness*.

Lexical diversity (LD) refers to the range of different words used in a text and a greater range indicates a higher diversity (McCarthy & Jarvis, 2010). LD has been found to be indicative of a wide range of variables such as speakers' proficiency (Carrell & Monroe, 1993; Malvern & Richards, 2002), vocabulary knowledge (Grela, 2002), and even speaker's social economic status (S. Ransdell & Wengelin, 2003).

Regarding writing skills, lexical diversity has been considered as an essential indicator of the quality of learners' writing (B. Laufer & Nation, 1995; Lu, 2012; Yu, 2010) and greater lexical diversity of words in a text is associated with more

challenging text (McNamara, Crossley, & McCarthy, 2010). Such a positive relationship between lexical diversity and quality of writing is also claimed explicitly in the rating scales of major international language tests such as IELTS, TOEFL iBT, or the Michigan English Language Assessment Battery (Yu, 2010).

A wide variety of indices has been used to measure lexical diversity, each of which offers a specific, verifiable, and objective score (McCarthy & Jarvis, 2010). The most commonly used LD metric is the type-token ratio (TTR) which is derived from the division of the number of types by the number of tokens. However, TTR has been shown to be elusive to measure LD because according to Heap's laws (Heaps, 1978) the more words (tokens) a text contains, the less likely it is that new words (types) will appear. Therefore, when TTR is used to compare any two texts, the longer text generally appears to show a lower lexical diversity.

Therefore, researchers have tried to establish an index of LD that is not affected by text length. Recently, a new LD computational measuring instrument, known as *vocd* (MacWhinney, 2000) has raised hopes that reliable LD measurement can be achieved. The *vocd* program's default procedures operate as follows. First, *vocd* takes 100 samples of 35 tokens drawn from the text and calculates a mean TTR for these samples. This procedure is then repeated for the samples of 36, 37 to 50 tokens. After the mean TTR values for random samples of 35-50 tokens have been plotted, *vocd* uses a formula known by its *D* coefficient (see Malvern, Richards, Chipere, & Duran, 2004, p. 51) to produce a theoretical curve that most closely fits the random sampling TTR curve. The value of D that provides the best fit between the theoretical curve and the random sampling TTR curve is referred to as optimal *D*. Some researchers (e.g. Malvern & Richards, 2002; Malvern, et al., 2004) found that *D* had a statistically significant and positive correlation with the overall quality ratings of both writing and speaking performances as well as learners' general language proficiency. In a recent evaluation, McCarthy and Jarvis (2010) concluded that *vocd* yields reliable results for texts having from 100 to 2,000 tokens.

Linguistic accuracy was assessed based on the ratio of the total number of grammatical errors per tokens. In Polio's study in 1997, the author synthesized the three most common ways that researchers used to measure linguistic accuracy:

holistic scales, number of error-free units, and number of errors. Among these, the last measure - counting the number of errors - is the most popular with various researchers calculating the ratio of the total number of errors per t-unit (Carlisle, 1989; Fischer, 1984); the ratio of total number of errors to total number of words (Chastain, 1990; Frantzen, 1995); or the ratio of total types of grammatical errors per total sentences (Y. Li, 2000). Polio (1997) concludes that error counts constitute more reliable measures than holistic ones for homogenous populations.

In addition, the *structural properties* and *communicative effectiveness* of students' texts were evaluated using analytical grading rubrics for descriptive and argumentative paragraphs. In this study, *structural properties* had to do with the structure of a paragraph, including the use of a topic sentence, supporting ideas, means to connect ideas and the provision of a concluding sentence. *Communicative effectiveness* includes text content, organization, coherence and cohesion, and audience awareness.

The grading rubrics for *structural properties* of descriptive and argumentative paragraphs can be found in Appendix 6. Seven out of eight items in the rubric were marked either 1, for the presence of each feature such as whether the text was in one paragraph, the text contained a topic sentence, cohesive devices were used etc., or 0, for the absence of a particular feature. Item 6 in the form features could be marked from 0 to 3 depending on the number of physical senses (i.e., what they could see, hear, smell, feel, and touch) described in the descriptive paragraph or the number of arguments used in the argumentative paragraph. The maximum mark that students could get for this category was 10.

In the grading rubrics for *communicative effectiveness* (see Appendix 7), six out of the eight items were ranked from 0 to 3 depending on how many details the writer described or how many arguments were used (Item 2); how well each detail was described or argued (Item 3); how well the writer organized his or her text (Item 4); how well the ideas were connected (Item 5); how appropriate the writer's tone was (Item 7); and how many details were interesting to that specific audience (Item 8). The remaining two items were used to evaluate whether the topic sentence could

attract readers' attention or not (Item 1) and whether the concluding sentence was a good closure for the text.

It can be seen from these two rubrics that some text components such as topic sentences, supporting ideas, cohesive devices and concluding sentences are included in both rubrics. However, in the *structural properties* rubrics, these components were measured based on their presence or absence, while in the *communicative effectiveness* rubrics these components were assessed based on how well they were formulated.

In the current study, three writing tests were administered: one before the start of the course (the *pretest)*, one immediately after the ten-week course had finished (the *immediate posttest*) and the last one ten weeks after the immediate posttest (the *delayed posttest)*. Neither the PPP nor TBLT group received any writing instruction between the immediate and delayed posttests. In these writing tests, students had forty minutes to write a descriptive paragraph and the same amount of time for producing an argumentative paragraph. In both conditions, they were provided with prompts about their audience, the information they could include, and the resources they could use during test administration. The prompts for the tests were evaluated by five writing teachers with at least ten years of experience and all agreed that the prompts for the three tests were very similar in topics, text audience and task requirements.

All writing pretests, immediate and delayed posttests were scored by the researcher. Three other raters, i.e. qualified teachers from the same university highly experienced in scoring descriptive and argumentative paragraphs scored a random sample (n=172, equal to 21% of students' texts) of all writing assignments (pretest, immediate and delayed posttest mixed). Each teacher marked between 27 to 30 texts for each paragraph type. Results of the statistical tests of the grading rubrics' inter-rater reliability between the researcher and the three raters are listed in Table 2 below.

Table 2: Pearson's correlation of the grading rubrics for descriptive and argumentative paragraphs

Inter-rater reliability between the researcher and other raters	Rubrics for Descriptive Paragraphs		Rubrics for Argumentative Paragraphs	
	Structural properties	Communicative effectiveness	Structural properties	Communicative effectiveness
Rater 1	.88	.88	.86	.89
Rater 2	.75	.81	.89	.80
Rater 3	.74	.89	.77	.84
All raters	.79	.80	.83	.73

It can be seen from Table 2 that the lowest Pearson's correlation coefficient is .73, which is said to be strong according to Buda and Jarynowski (2010), Cohen (1988), George (2003) and Kline (2000).

3.6 Measures of self-regulated writing strategies

The most popular instruments to measure self-regulation include self-report questionnaires, observations and interviews (Boekaerts & Corno, 2005; Montalvo & Torres, 2004; Winne & Perry, 2000).

Self-report questionnaires are the most frequently used protocol for measuring SRL (Boekaerts & Corno, 2005). Survey methods have their own advantages of being economical in terms of labor, relatively fast and inexpensive to administer and score (Patrick & Middleton, 2002). However, investigations using self-report questionnaires do not reveal what learners actually do as compared to what they say they do (Perry, 2002) and an overreliance on survey methods may obscure other perspectives of SRL (Patrick & Middleton, 2002). For those reasons, recent researchers stress the need to include qualitative measures such as interviews and observations because they involve rich and holistic descriptions, emphasize the social settings in which the phenomena are embedded, do not make assumptions about intra-individual stability, and are oriented to reveal complexity (Brewer & Hunter, 1989;

Denzin, 2009; Miles & Huberman, 1994). The three research tools used to test students' self-regulation in this study are described below.

A *questionnaire on self-regulatory writing strategies* (see Appendix 8) was designed based on Zimmerman and Risemberg's (1997) Triadic Self-Regulatory Processes in Writing. The questionnaire consists of 30 statements describing what students can do to self-regulate their own environmental processes or their use of context-related strategies (statements 1 to 8); their behavioral processes or their use of performance strategies (statements 9 to 14), and their personal processes or their use of cognitive or affective strategies (statements 15 to 30). Participants were asked to rate statements on a 7-point Likert-scale in which 1 indicated "Not at all true of me" and 7 corresponded to "Very true of me". The questionnaire was evaluated by three Vietnamese researchers in the field of language education to see whether it could describe typical ways Vietnamese students self-regulated their learning. Then, the questionnaire was translated into Vietnamese and piloted first with ten students of the same background to test whether they understood the statements correctly. After being revised, the translated version of the questionnaire was piloted with 90 students from 18 to 19 years old and from the English Language Studies field – the same cohort as the one from which the participants of this study were drawn. The Cronbach's alpha for the pilot test was .86, which shows that the questionnaire was reliable.

A Principal Axis Factoring with a Varimax (orthogonal) rotation of 30 self-regulatory writing strategies was conducted with data gathered from 90 participants' self-report questionnaires in the pilot test. An examination of Kaiser-Mayer Olkin measure of sampling adequacy suggested that the sample was factorable (KMO = .689)

Table 3: Rotated Component Matrix loadings for 30 questionnaire items*

Component	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Environmental structuring 1						.804				
Environmental structuring 2						.701				
Environmental structuring 3						.525				
Self-selected models 1				.459						
Self-selected models 2				.818						
Self-selected models 3				.816						
Self-selected models 4				.461						
Self-selected models 5							.491			
Self-monitoring 1		.680								
Self-monitoring 2		.725								
Self-monitoring 3		.704								
Self-consequences 1										.769
Self-consequences 2										.454
Self-verbalization	.694									
Time planning & management		.467								
Goal setting 1			.804							
Goal setting 2			.893							
Goal setting 3			.667							
Self-evaluative standard 1	.735									
Self-evaluative standard 2	.674									
Self-evaluative standard 3	.443									
Cognitive strategies 1	.779									
Cognitive strategies 2	.664									
Cognitive strategies 3								.816		
Cognitive strategies 4	.568									

Cognitive strategies 5	.533		
Cognitive strategies 6		.729	
Cognitive strategies 7			.786
Mental imaginary 1	.661		
Mental imaginary 2	.716		

Loading ≥ .40

The results of the analysis are shown in Table 3. When loadings less than .40 were excluded, the analysis yielded a ten-factor solution, which is the same number of components in the questionnaire. These components include (1) environmental structuring, (2) self-selected models, tutors or books, (3) self- monitoring, (4) self-consequences, (5) self-verbalization, (6) time planning and management, (7) goal setting, (8) self-evaluative standard, (9) cognitive strategies, and (10) mental imaginary.

Students in both conditions were asked to complete the Questionnaire on Self-regulated Writing Strategies in the pretest, immediate and delayed posttests. Students had fifteen minutes to complete each questionnaire. Cronbach's alpha for the three self-regulation processes and the overall self-regulatory writing strategies (the mean of the three self-regulation processes) of the three tests was .90. Cronbach's alpha coefficients for the three self-regulation processes and the overall self-regulatory writing strategies are reported in Table 4.

Table 4: Cronbach's alpha coefficients for overall the self-regulatory strategies and three self-regulation processes

	Pretest	***Immediate Posttest***	***Delayed Posttest***
Self-regulatory writing strategies	,89	,89	,89
Environmental self-regulation	,90	,90	,90
Behavioral self-regulation	,90	,90	,90
Personal self-regulation	,89	,90	,90

Besides the questionnaire, *focused group interviews* were conducted after the writing courses. Focus groups are suitable for eliciting participants' experiences, attitudes, and opinions (Wilson, 1997). In the present study, focus group discussions were conducted with three groups of five students in the PPP and TBLT conditions right after the courses. These discussions aimed at investigating students' perceptions of the benefits and drawbacks of the teaching approach they had been exposed to in their classrooms in relation to the opportunities to develop their self-regulation. These interviews provided some additional information supplementing the data generated by the self-report questionnaires. In these interviews, students had chances to say why they did what they did in their learning context and shed some lights on how the two conditions differed in providing opportunities to develop students' self-regulatory strategies.

The discussions were conducted in small groups of five students, which is an ideal number to prevent group fragmentation and focus loss (L. Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2011). A discussion guide (see Appendix 9) was used by the interviewer. The group discussion format was selected because it is time saving (L. Cohen, et al., 2011; Gay, Mills, & Airasian, 2006). In fact, it took each group about 40 minutes to finish the discussion tasks. This type of interview is less intimidating than one-on-one interviews (L. Cohen, et al., 2011), which was especially crucial for encouraging the participant students in the study to share their ideas and experiences. Most of the participants openly discussed the topics given, and there was no pressure of being interviewed.

Classroom and students' pair-work activities were indirectly observed via *video recordings*. All lessons of the PPP and TBLT groups were video-recorded by a cameraman. The researcher asked the cameraman to record the teacher's activities, her interactions with students and their responses and activities in class. The presence of the cameraman in the classrooms somehow made the teacher nervous, but this soon disappeared as the lesson proceeded. In the first class lesson, students were asked if any of them would like to be arranged to seats where they would not be recorded. However, no students objected to the filming. On the whole, there was little nervousness or tension among students while being watched and video-recorded.

These video recordings provided supportive evidence for self-regulatory strategies that students reported in their questionnaires and focused group interviews.

In addition, three pairs of students in the PPP group and three pairs of students in the TBLT group were also randomly selected for being video-recorded. These videos provided more detailed information on students' activities in the classroom.

Qualitative data obtained from the focused group interviews, classroom video recordings and pair-work video recordings were analyzed following the three steps of (1) preparing and organizing data, (2) coding and categorizing the codes, and finally (3) interpreting and reporting the data.

Preparing and organizing of the data involved transcribing and translating the interviews and the classroom and pair-work conversations. The researcher herself transcribed and translated all the interviews. The transcription did not include non-verbal features such as pause, laughter, or hesitations in the participants' talks.

Coding was performed mainly for the interview transcripts. Coding in the current study followed a procedure suggested by Tesch (1990), Creswell (2009) and Grbich (2012). The process began with segmenting units of analysis. In the interviews, any "segment of text that is comprehensible by itself and contains one idea, episode or piece of information" relating to the issue being investigated (Tesch, 1990, p. 116) was a unit for coding. In particular, when a student's response related to a specific self-regulatory strategy, it would be coded under the abbreviation of that strategy. For example, when Respondent number 1 from the first focus group of the TBLT condition talked about choosing a good student to ask for help, that specific sentence would be coded as TBLT1-Envi-Respondent1.

To facilitate access to and retrieval of the data sources, each unit or chunk of data was numbered and any quotes used for reporting evidence were assigned a label and number. Coding was done separately for each teaching condition across the relevant interview data items and across the three focus groups of the PPP condition and three focus groups of the TBLT condition. Examples of data extracts and code categories are given in Table 5 below.

Table 5: Example of data extracts and how they were coded

Extract	**Coded for**
Question: How did the teaching approach you learned in the past ten weeks differ from the approach you learned at high school?	
TBLT1-Envi-Respondent1: At high school, whenever I needed help for my writing, I asked my teacher or other good students in my class for help. In university, I usually surf the internet, read books or ask my roommates at the dorm who are second- or third-year English students. I also checked up vocabulary in the bilingual dictionaries. Sometimes, I ask my teacher for help.	Self-selected models, tutors or books
TBLT2-Personal-Respondent5: At university, we had to learn by ourselves most of the time; therefore, we tried our best to finish our work on time. The time pressure made us work at our own pace better.	Time planning and management

Similar codes were collated into a different set and reduced into categories or themes for analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006) including codes for self-regulation of environmental processes, behavioral processes and personal processes. For example, all statements that were coded into Envi (environmental self-regulation) were grouped together into one set. Two other sets were grouped with codes of Beha (behavioral self-regulation) and Personal (for personal self-regulation). In each set, codes were grouped in subsets according to the type of strategies they belonged to. For example, there were two subsets of *environmental structuring* and *self-selected models, tutors or books* in the set of environmental self-regulation and three subsets of *self-monitoring*, *self-consequences* and *self-evaluation* in the set of behavioral self-regulation.

In the current study, inter-rater reliability for validating categories was not attempted. Instead, the study relies on the triangulation strategy of combining video

observations, interview data and self-report data, which could help reduce subjectivity and enhance the internal validity of the analyses.

The process of *interpreting data* is most likely to cause bias (Sowden & Keeves, 1988). Therefore, to guard against that risk, a process of triangulating evidence (Denzin, 1989; Miles & Huberman, 1984) which involves tracking and obtaining evidence from a variety of data sources was set up. The analysis was iterative, with an examination for consistencies in self-report and observed practice from across the classrooms for common patterns. For example, when the data from the self-report questionnaires showed that students in the TBLT conditions became more self-regulated in their environmental structuring, the researcher would then look for similar reports in the focus group interviews to check which specific things the respondents said related to those self-regulatory strategies. Later, the pair work and classroom videos were viewed and noted to provide evidence on how these strategies were used in a specific classroom setting.

Chapter 4

RESULTS

This chapter presents the results related to the four research questions of this study. The chapter starts with a correlation test of the four tools measuring students' writing performance in this study. The chapter continues with the findings regarding the impact of PPP and TBLT on students' writing performance respectively. The next part answers the question of the differential effect of the two approaches on students' written output. Then I present the quantitative and qualitative data regarding the extent to which students in each group developed their self-regulatory strategies. Finally, the chapter ends with findings on the differential impact of PPP and TBLT on students' self-regulation skills.

4.1 Correlation coefficients between measures

Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients were computed for the students' pretest to assess the relationship between the four measures of students' writing performance of descriptive paragraphs (see Table 6) and argumentative paragraphs (see Table 7). In general, there are positive correlations between *D* values, structural properties and communicative effectiveness of both paragraph types. The ratios of grammatical errors per token, however, are negatively correlated with the other three writing measures. It is worth mentioning that there are statistically significant correlations between the structural properties and communicative effectiveness measure for both descriptive paragraphs ($r = .58$, $p < .001$) and argumentative paragraphs ($r = .71$, $p < .001$)

Table 6: Pearson coefficients of pretests of descriptive paragraphs

		D values	Grammar errors	Structural properties	Communicative effectiveness
D value	Pearson correlation	1	-,039	,002	,186*
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,652	,980	,029
	N	138	138	138	138
Grammar errors	Pearson correlation	-,039	1	-,184*	-,216*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,652		,031	,011
	N	138	138	138	138
Structural properties	Pearson correlation	,002	-,184*	1	,579**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,980	,031		,000
	N	138	138	138	138
Communicative effectiveness	Pearson correlation	,186*	-,216*	,579**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,029	,011	,000	
	N	138	138	138	138

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 7: Pearson coefficients of pretests of argumentative paragraphs

		D values	Grammar errors	Structural properties	Communicative effectiveness
D value	Pearson correlation	1	-,083	,034	,075
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,334	,691	,384
	N	138	138	138	138
Grammar errors	Pearson correlation	-,083	1	-,377**	-,430**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,334		,000	,000
	N	138	138	138	138
Structural properties	Pearson correlation	,034	-,377**	1	,712**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,691	,000		,000
	N	138	138	138	138
Communicative effectiveness	Pearson correlation	,075	-,430**	,712**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,384	,000	,000	
	N	138	138	138	138

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

The significant correlations of communicative effectiveness and the two measures of lexical diversity and linguistic accuracy in the current study are not new in the evaluation of written output. In fact, the importance of vocabulary and *lexical diversity* in writing has been demonstrated in a large number of studies such as Cowie (1988), Coxhead (1998, 2000), N. Ellis (1994, 1997), Laufer (1994), Nation (2001) and Schmitt (2000). For example, Laufer and Nation (1995) found significant positive correlations between learners' gain on vocabulary tests and the lexical diversity in these learners' written compositions.

In addition, *linguistic accuracy* is also important to the quality improvement of language production, including written products (Allen, Swain, Harley, & Cummins, 1990; R. Ellis, 2001; Norris & Ortega, 2001). For that reason, most of

analytical and holistic grading rubrics for written products including IELTS Writing Mark Scheme include grammar accuracy as part of its assessment. In fact, a text cannot communicate its message well if it includes too many grammatical errors.

Last but not least, in this particular study *structural properties* had a close relationship with features evaluated in *communicative effectiveness.* This results from the fact that some text components such as topic sentences, supporting ideas, cohesive devices and concluding sentences were included in both rubrics. These components were measured based on their presence or absence in the former rubric while they were assessed once again in the latter one, based on how well they were formulated. Therefore, it is reasonable to expect that there will be high significant correlations between these two measures in the Pearson test of both text types.

4.2 Writing performance development of the PPP and TBLT conditions

4.2.1 Writing performance development of the PPP condition

Table 8 below gives an overview of changes in writing performance of the PPP group. In general, students in this group improved for all four text features from the pretest to the immediate posttest of both descriptive and argumentative paragraphs. However, the evolution was different from the immediate posttest to the delayed posttest. Specifically, their lexical diversity increased for both text types, especially for the argumentative paragraphs, while their scores of structural properties and communicative effectiveness decreased for both text types. For linguistic accuracy, students made fewer grammatical errors in their descriptive texts but more in argumentative texts in the delayed posttest as compared to the immediate posttest.

Table 8: Changes of the PPP students' writing performance

	Pretest	Immediate Posttest	Delayed Posttest
Descriptive paragraphs			
Lexical diversity	59.9 (15.3)	63.0 (11.7)	66.1 (14.8)
Grammatical errors per tokens	.117 (.054)	.065 (.027)	.060 (.026)
Structural properties	5.78 (1.33)	8.23 (1.11)	8.10 (1.13)
Communicative effectiveness	11.3 (2.75)	13.3 (2.84)	12.9 (3.01)

Argumentative paragraphs			
Lexical diversity	62.7 (18.1)	62.4 (11.2)	73.2 (15.9)
Grammatical errors per tokens	.133 (.054)	.050 (.019)	.069 (.030)
Structural properties	5.58 (1.57)	9.39 (.861)	7.90 (1.69)
Communicative effectiveness	8.74 (3.55)	14.4 (2.40)	12.2 (2.82)

SD in parentheses

Repeated measures analyses of variance (RM-ANOVAs) were conducted with the data from the pretest, immediate posttest and delayed posttest of the PPP group. Table 9 summarizes the results of RM-ANOVAs for the lexical diversity, linguistic accuracy, structural properties and communicative effectiveness of the descriptive and argumentative paragraphs.

Table 9: Results of RM-ANOVAs of the PPP condition

	MS	*df*	*F*	*p*	η_P^2
Descriptive paragraphs					
Lexical diversity	717	1.83	3.62	.033*	.051
Linguistic accuracy	.085	1.63	80.2	.000**	.54
Structural properties	139	1.88	99.0	.000**	.59
Communicative effectiveness	81.3	1.93	11.8	.000**	.15
Argumentative paragraphs					
Lexical diversity	2672	1.94	11.2	.000**	.14
Linguistic accuracy	.18	1.51	126.5	.000**	.51
Structural properties	288	1.76	139	.000**	.67
Communicative effectiveness	688	1.66	104	.000**	.60

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

For ***lexical diversity***, RM-ANOVAs with Greenhouse-Geisser corrections showed that there were significant differences for both descriptive paragraphs ($F(1.93, 125) = 3.62$, $p = .033$, $\eta_P^2 = .051$) and argumentative paragraphs ($F(1.94, 131) = 11.2$, $p < .001$, $\eta_P^2 = .14$). The effect size of the first RM-ANOVA was medium

while that of the second RM-ANOVA was high according to Murphy and Myors' (2004) standards.

Post-hoc tests using paired samples t-tests revealed that the students increased their lexical diversity significantly from the pretest to the delayed posttest for both descriptive paragraphs (M = 59.9, SD = 15.3 and M = 63.0, SD = 11.7 respectively; $t(68) = 2.37$, $p = .021$; $d = .23$) and argumentative paragraphs (M = 62.7, SD = 18.1 and M = 73.2, SD = 15.9 respectively; $t(68) = 3.75$, $p < .001$; $d = .62$). There was also a significant increase of *D* value between the immediate (M = 62.4, SD = 11.2) and delayed posttests (M = 73.2, SD = 15.9) of the argumentative genre ($t(68) = 4.51$, $p < .001$; $d = .78$). The effect size of the first analysis ($d = .23$) was low while those of the last two analyses ($d = .62$ and $d = .78$) were medium according to Cohen's (1988) standards. There was no significant increase of lexical diversity between the immediate posttest and delayed posttest.

Figure 1 below shows the changes of *lexical diversity* in the pretest, immediate posttest and delayed posttest of descriptive and argumentative paragraphs of the PPP group.

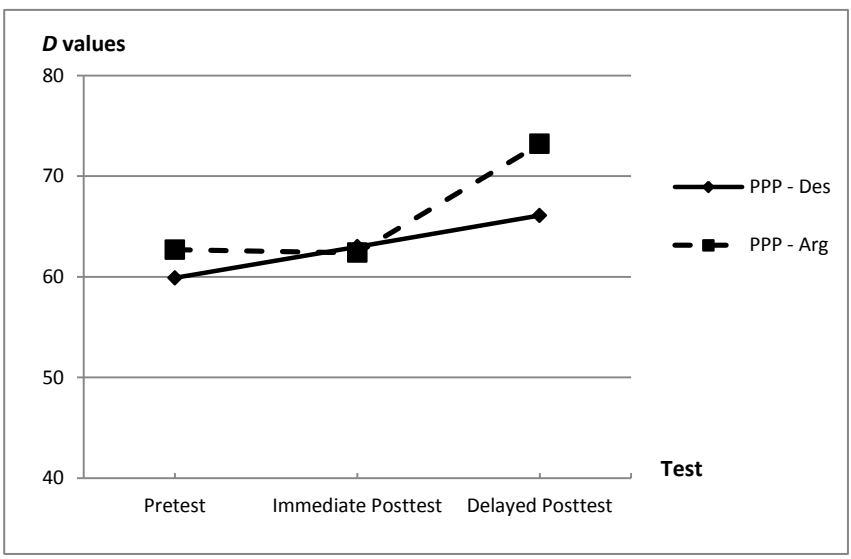

Figure 1: Changes of *lexical diversity* of PPP students' texts in the pretest, immediate posttest and delayed posttest

RM-ANOVAs with Greenhouse-Geisser corrections administered with the ratio of grammatical errors per tokens showed that students in the PPP group significantly improved their ***linguistic accuracy*** for both descriptive and argumentative paragraphs ($F(1.63, 110) = 80.2$, $p < .001$, $\eta_P^2 = .54$ and $F(1.51, 102) = 126$, $p < .001$, $\eta_P^2 = .65$ respectively). The effect sizes for these analyses ($\eta_P^2 = .54$ and $\eta_P^2 = .65$) were medium according to Murphy and Myors' (2004) standards.

Post-hoc tests using paired samples t-tests revealed that grammatical errors reduced significantly from the pretest to the immediate posttest, M = 0.12, SD = .054 and M = .065, SD = .027; $t(68) = 9.76$, $p < .0001$; $d = 1.25$ for descriptive paragraphs and M = .13, SD = .054 and M = .050, SD = .054; $t(68) = 13.47$, $p < .0001$; $d = 1.54$ for argumentative paragraphs. Grammatical errors also decreased significantly from the pretest to the delayed posttest of descriptive paragraphs, M = .117, SD = .054 and M = .06, SD = .026; $t(68) = .95$, $p < .0001$; $d = 1.34$; and of argumentative paragraphs M = .113, SD = .054 and M = .069, SD = .03; $t(68) = 10.2$, $p < .0001$; $d = 1.46$. The effect sizes for all these analyses were high according to Cohen's (1988) standards. There were no significant differences of linguistic accuracy between the immediate posttest and delayed posttest of both text types.

Figure 2 shows the changes of *linguistic accuracy* in the pretest, immediate posttest and delayed posttest of descriptive and argumentative paragraphs of the PPP group.

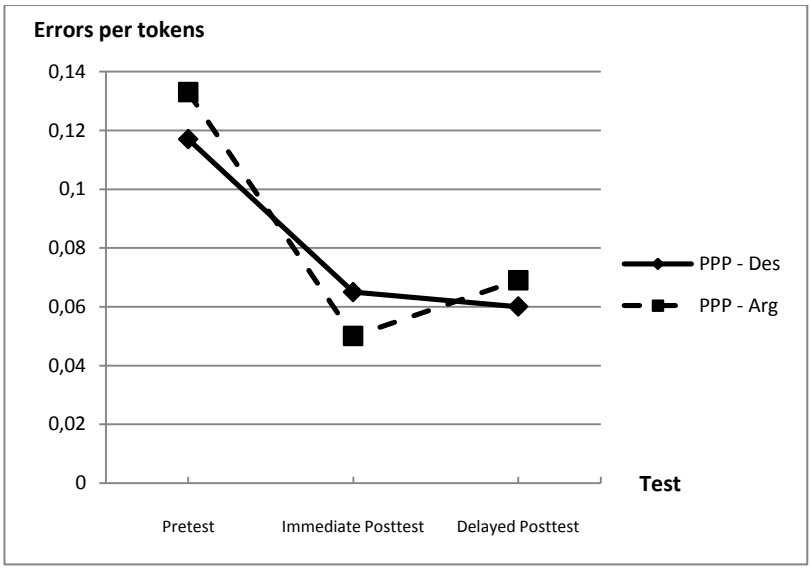

Figure 2: Changes of *linguistic accuracy* of PPP students' texts in the pretest, immediate posttest and delayed posttest

For ***structural properties***, RM-ANOVAs with Greenhouse-Geisser corrections showed that for both descriptive paragraphs and argumentative paragraphs, the differences were significant with F(1.88, 179) = 99, $p < .001$, $\eta_P^2 = .59$ and F(1.76, 120) = 139, $p < .001$, $\eta_P^2 = .67$ respectively. The effect sizes for both analyses ($\eta_P^2 = .59$ and $\eta_P^2 = .67$) were high according to Murphy and Myors' (2004) standards.

However, post-hoc tests using paired samples t-tests revealed that students in this group only made significant gains between the pretest and the immediate posttest of the two text types (M = 5.78, SD = 1.33 and M = 8.23, SD = 1.11; $t(68) = 12.07$, $p < .001$; $d = 2.00$ and M = 5.58, SD = 1.57 and M = 8.23, SD = 1.11; $t(68) = 18.81$, $p < .001$; $d = 2.74$ for descriptive and argumentative paragraphs respectively), but not between the immediate posttest and delayed posttest. For the argumentative paragraphs, there was a significant decrease between the immediate and delayed posttest (M = 9.30, SD = 1.11 and M = 7.90, SD = 1.69; $t(68) = 5.52$, $p < .001$; $d = .98$). The effect sizes for all these analyses were high according to Cohen's (1988) standards.

Figure 3 below shows the changes of *structural properties* in the pretest, immediate posttest and delayed posttest of descriptive and argumentative paragraphs of the PPP group.

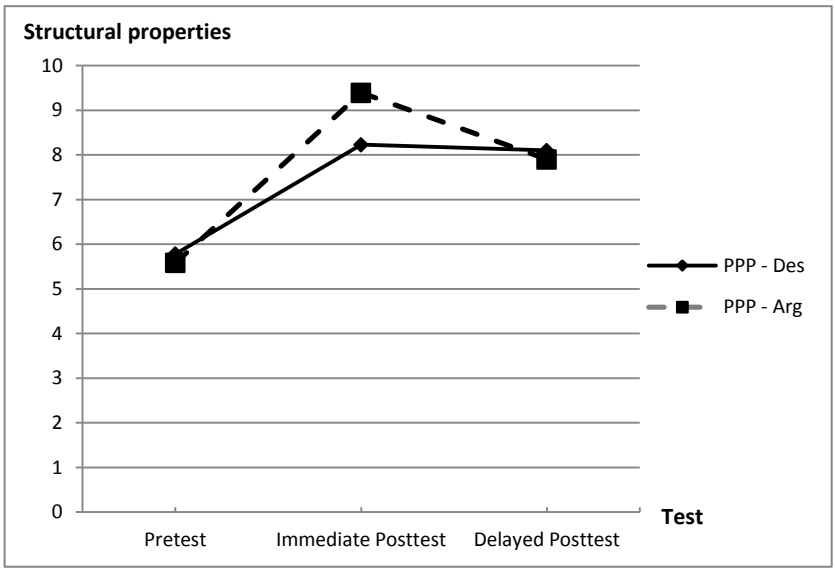

Figure 3: Changes of *structural properties* of PPP students' texts in the pretest, immediate posttest and delayed posttest

For ***communicative effectiveness***, RM-ANOVAs with Greenhouse-Geisser corrections showed that the PPP group improved their scores significantly for both descriptive paragraphs (F(1.93, 131) = 11.8, $p < .001$, $\eta_P^2 = .15$) and argumentative paragraphs (F(1.66, 113) = 104, $p < .001$, $\eta_P^2 = .60$). The effect size for the analysis of descriptive paragraphs ($\eta_P^2 = .15$) was high while that of argumentative paragraphs ($\eta_P^2 = .60$) was medium according to Murphy and Myors' (2004) standards.

However, post-hoc tests using paired samples t-tests revealed that differences were only significant between the pretest and immediate posttest of descriptive paragraphs (M = 11.3, SD = 2.75 and M = 13.33, SD = 2.85; $t(68) = 4.26$, $p < .001$; $d = .71$) and argumentative paragraphs (M = 8.71, SD = 3.6 and M = 14.42, SD = 2.58; $t(68) = 4.04$, $p < .001$; $d = 1.82$). The effect size of the analysis of descriptive paragraphs ($d = .71$) was medium while that of argumentative paragraph (d = 1.82)

was high according to Cohen's (1988) standard. The communicative effectiveness decreased significantly from the immediate posttest to the delayed posttest of argumentative paragraphs (M = 14.42, SD = 2.58 and M = 12.21, SD = 3.06; $t(68) = 7.13$; $d = .78$). The effect size for this analysis was high according to Cohen's (1988) standards. There was no significant difference between the immediate and delayed posttest of descriptive paragraphs.

Figure 4 below shows the changes of *communicative effectiveness* in the pretest, immediate posttest and delayed posttest of descriptive and argumentative paragraphs of the PPP group.

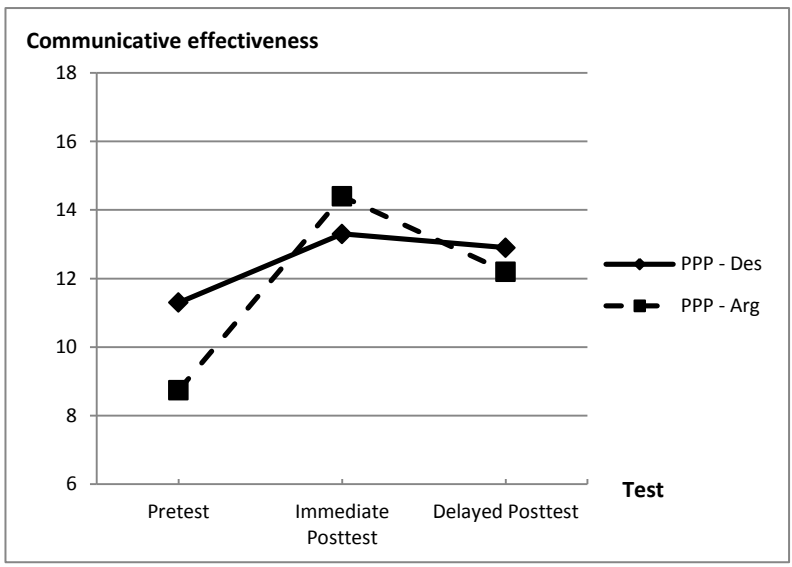

Figure 4: Changes of *communicative effectiveness* of PPP students' texts in the pretest, immediate posttest and delayed posttest

4.2.2 Writing performance development of the TBLT condition

Table 10 summarizes the changes of the four text features in the pretest, immediate posttest and delayed posttest of the TBLT group. This group showed similar tendencies as the PPP group: students' output improved for all four text features from the pretest to the immediate posttest for both descriptive and argumentative paragraphs. From the immediate posttest to the delayed posttest, students' output in

the TBLT group also improved with regard to lexical diversity, linguistic accuracy and communicative effectiveness. However, the lexical diversity only continued to increase in the argumentative paragraphs while decreasing a little bit in the descriptive paragraphs.

Table 10: Changes of the TBLT students' writing performance

	Pretest	Immediate Posttest	Delayed Posttest
Descriptive paragraphs			
Lexical diversity	63.5 (14.6)	69.9 (17.5)	68.6 (18.5)
Grammatical errors per tokens	.110 (.047)	.077 (.039)	.056 (.028)
Structural properties	5.59 (.96)	7.87 (1.34)	8.14 (.94)
Communicative effectiveness	11.4 (2.32)	12.8 (3.20)	14.3 (2.38)
Argumentative paragraphs			
Lexical diversity	63.7 (17.3)	70.6 (16.6)	75.9 (15.7)
Grammatical errors per tokens	.117 (.054)	.061 (.029)	.061 (.030)
Structural properties	5.90 (1.38)	9.06 (1.08)	8.01 (1.32)
Communicative effectiveness	8.46 (3.90)	14.1 (2.50)	12.9 (2.71)

SD in parentheses

RM-ANOVAs conducted with the scores of the TBLT group show significant changes of this group. Table 11 summarizes the results of RM-ANOVAs of the TBLT group.

Table 11: Results of repeated measures ANOVAs of the TBLT condition – writing performance

	MS	*df*	*F*	*p*	η_P^2
Descriptive paragraphs					
Lexical diversity	808	1.97	3.51	.033*	.049
Linguistic accuracy	.056	1.82	63.6	.000**	.48
Structural properties	158	1.71	134	.000**	.66
Communicative effectiveness	148	1.94	33.1	.000**	.33
Argumentative paragraphs					
Lexical diversity	2728	1.91	9.80	.000**	.13
Linguistic accuracy	.085	1.69	80.0	.000**	.51
Structural properties	211	1.69	132	.000**	.66
Communicative effectiveness	732	1.64	96.7	.000**	.59

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

For ***lexical*** diversity, RM-ANOVAs with Greenhouse-Geisser corrections showed that the scores differed statistically between time points for descriptive paragraphs ($F(1.97, 134) = 3.51$, $p = .033$, $\eta_P^2 = .049$) and argumentative paragraphs ($F(1.91, 129) = 9.81$, $p < .001$, $\eta_P^2 = .13$). The effect size of the analysis of descriptive paragraphs ($\eta_P^2 = .049$) was low while that of argumentative paragraph ($\eta_P^2 = .13$) was medium according to Murphy and Myors' (2004) standards.

Post-hoc tests using paired samples t-tests revealed that students in this group increased their lexical diversity of descriptive paragraphs significantly only between the pretest (M = 63.5, SD = 14.6) and the immediate posttest (M = 69.9, SD = 17.5); $t(68) = 2.51$, $p = .014$; $d = .40$. The effect size for this analysis ($d = .40$) was low according to Cohen's (1988) standards. The scores of lexical diversity of argumentative paragraphs rose significantly between the pretest (M = 63.7, SD = 17.3) and the immediate posttest (M = 70.6, SD = 16.6); $t(68) = 2.74$, $p = .008$; $d = .41$ and between the pretest (M = 63.7, SD = 17.3) and the delayed posttest (M = 75.9, SD = 15.8); $t(68) = 4.02$, $p < .001$; $d = .74$ but no significant difference was found between the immediate posttest and delayed posttest. The first effect size ($d = .41$)

was low while the second one (d = .74) was high according to Cohen's (1988) standards.

Figure 5 below shows the changes of *lexical diversity* in the pretest, immediate and delayed posttests of descriptive and argumentative paragraphs of the TBLT group.

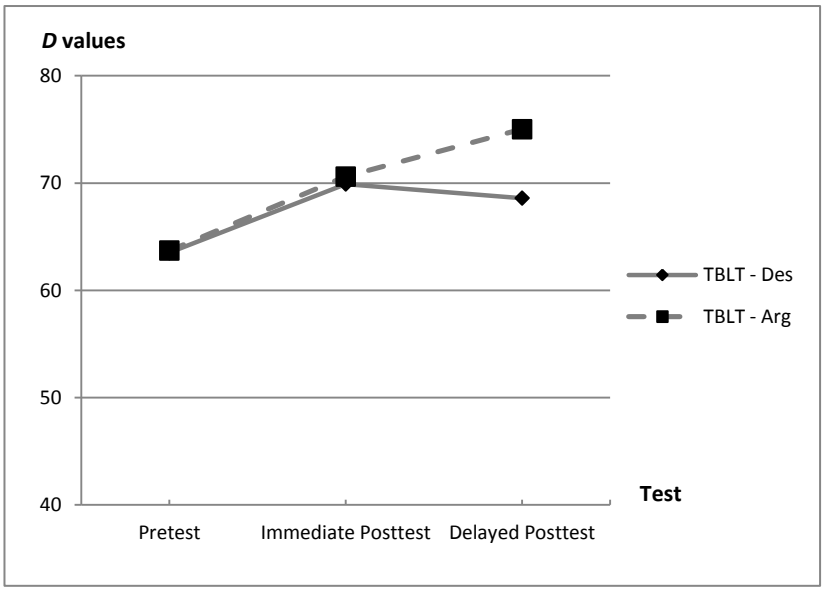

Figure 5: Changes of *lexical diversity* of TBLT students' texts in the pretest, immediate posttest and delayed posttest

For ***linguistic accuracy***, RM-ANOVAs with Greenhouse-Geisser corrections administered with ratios of grammatical errors per tokens revealed that this text feature improved significantly, F(1.82, 124) = 63.6, $p < .001$, $\eta_P^2 = .48$ for descriptive paragraphs, and F(1.69, 115) = 71.1, $p < .001$, $\eta_P^2 = .51$ for argumentative paragraphs. The effect sizes for these analyses ($\eta_P^2 = .48$ and $\eta_P^2 = .51$) were high according to Murphy and Myors' (2004) standards.

Post-hoc tests using paired samples t-tests revealed that students in this group decreased their grammatical errors significantly from the pretest to both the immediate and delayed posttests for both descriptive and argumentative paragraphs

with all the *p values* being smaller than .001. Particularly, students in the TBLT groups significantly decreased their grammatical errors from the pretest to the immediate posttest of descriptive paragraphs with M = .11, SD = .047 and M = .077, SD = .039 respectively; $t(68) = 7.09$, $p < .001$; $d = .76$; and argumentative paragraphs with M = .117, SD = .054 and M = .061, SD = .03 respectively; $t(68) = 9.89$, $p < .001$; $d = 1.28$. They also decreased their grammatical errors from the pretest to the delayed posttest of descriptive paragraphs with M = .11, SD = .047 and M = .056, SD = .028 respectively; $t(68) = 9.81$, $p < .001$; $d = 1.39$ and argumentative paragraphs with M = .117, SD = .054 and M = .061, SD = .03 respectively; $t(68) = 8.98$, $p < .001$; $d = 1.28$. The effect sizes for all these analyses were high according to Cohen's (1988) standards.

In addition, the ratios of grammatical errors per tokens also declined significantly from the immediate posttest to the delayed posttest of descriptive paragraphs with M = .077, SD = .039 and M = .056, SD = .028 respectively; $t(68) = 5$, $p < .001$; $d = .62$. The effect size for this analysis was medium according to Cohen's (1988) standards. There was no significant difference between the immediate posttest and delayed posttest of argumentative paragraphs.

Figure 6 shows the changes in the level of *linguistic accuracy* in the pretest, immediate posttest and delayed posttest of descriptive and argumentative paragraphs of the TBLT group.

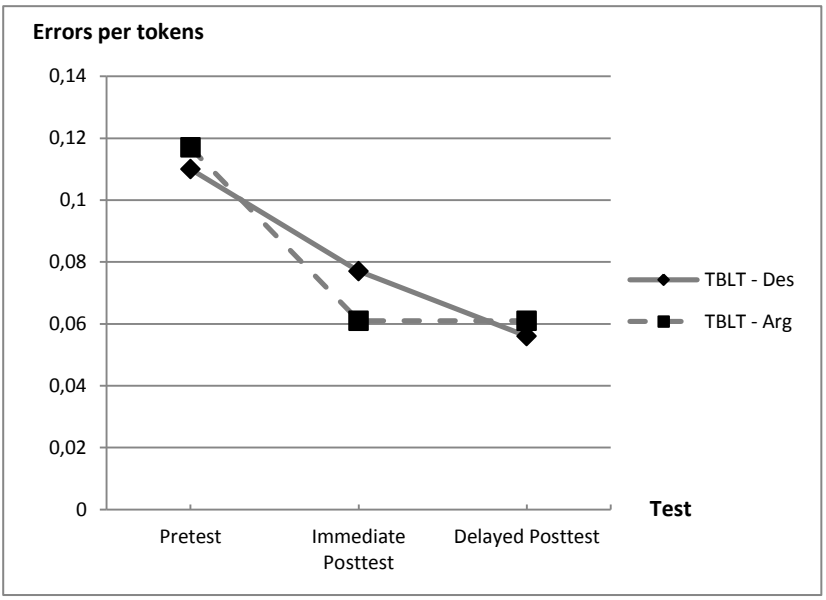

Figure 6: Changes of *linguistic accuracy* of TBLT students' texts in the pretest, immediate posttest and delayed posttest

For ***structural properties***, RM-ANOVAs with Greenhouse-Geisser corrections showed significant changes of both descriptive and argumentative paragraphs ($F(1.71, 116) = 134$, $p < .001$, $\eta_P^2 = .66$ and $F(1.69, 115) = 132$, $p < .001$, $\eta_P^2 = .66$ respectively). The effect sizes for these analyses were high according to Murphy and Myors' (2004) standards.

Post-hoc tests using paired samples t-tests revealed that scores for structural properties increased significantly from the pretest to the immediate posttest of both descriptive paragraphs with M = 5.59, SD = .96 and M = 7.87, SD = 1.34 respectively, $t(68) = 14.01$, $p < .001$; $d = 1.96$ and argumentative paragraphs with M = 5.81, SD = 1.47 and M = 8.98, SD = 1.22 respectively, $t(68) = 15.41$, $p < .001$; $d = 2.35$. Scores for structural properties also increased significantly from the pre-test to the delayed posttest of both descriptive paragraphs with M = 5.59, SD = .96 and M = 8.10, SD = 1.07 respectively, $t(68) = 7.37$, $p < .001$; $d = 2.47$ and argumentative

paragraphs with M = 5.81, SD = 1.47 and M = 7.96, SD = 1.41 respectively, $t(68) = 9.15$, $p < .001$; $d = 1.49$. The effect sizes of all these analyses were high according to Cohen's (1988) standards.

However, these scores did not differ significantly between the immediate posttest and delayed posttest. Figure 7 below shows the changes of *structural properties* in the pretest, immediate posttest and delayed posttest of descriptive and argumentative paragraphs of the TBLT group.

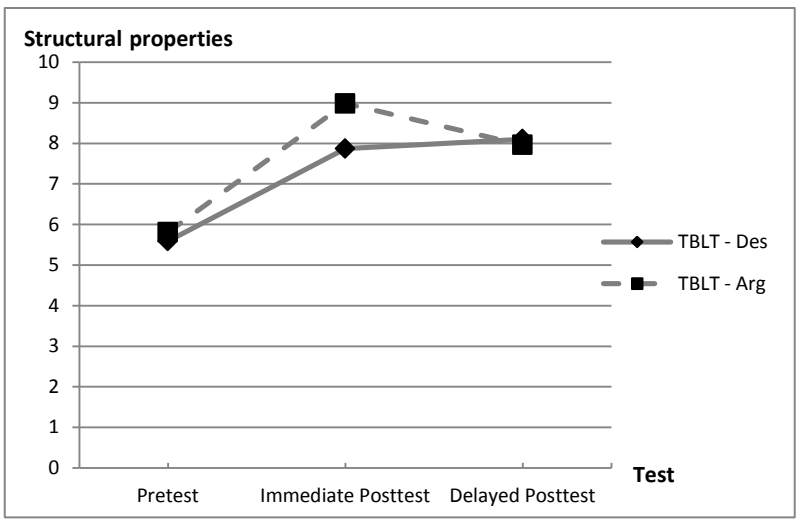

Figure 7: Changes of *structural properties* of TBLT students' texts in the pretest, immediate posttest and delayed posttest

For ***communicative effectiveness***, RM-ANOVAs showed that the scores increased significantly for both descriptive and argumentative paragraphs ($F(1.94, 132) = 33.1$, $p < .001$, $\eta_P^2 = .32$ and $F(1.63, 111) = 96.7$, $p < .001$, $\eta_P^2 = .59$ respectively). The effect sizes for these analyses ($\eta_P^2 = .32$ and $\eta_P^2 = .59$) were high according to Murphy and Myors' (2004) standards.

Posthoc tests using paired samples t-tests revealed that the scores for communicative effectiveness rose significantly from the pretest to the immediate posttest of both descriptive paragraphs with M = 11.40, SD = 2.39 and M = 12.84, SD = 3.20 respectively, $t(68) = 14.41$, $p < .001$; $d = .51$ and argumentative paragraphs

with M = 8.46, SD = 3.90 and M = 14.05, SD = 2.50 respectively, $t(68) = 12.16$, $p < .001$; $d = 1.70$. The effect size for the analysis of descriptive paragraphs ($d = .51$) was medium while that of argumentative paragraphs ($d = 1.70$) was high according to Cohen's (1988) standards.

Scores of communicative effectiveness also increased significantly from the pre-test to the delayed posttest of both descriptive paragraphs with M = 11.40, SD = 2.39 and M = 14.26, SD = 2.46 respectively, $t(68) = 7.34$, $p < .001$; $d = .51$ and argumentative paragraphs with M = 8.46, SD = 3.90 and M = 12.87, SD = 2.71 respectively, $t(68) = 9.15$, $p < .001$; $d = 1.31$. The effect size for the analysis of descriptive paragraphs ($d = .51$) was medium while that of argumentative paragraphs ($d = 1.31$) was high according to Cohen's (1988) standards.

The scores for communicative effectiveness increased significantly from the immediate posttest (M = 12.84, SD = 3.20) to the delayed posttest (M = 14.26, SD = 2.46) of descriptive paragraphs; $t(68) = 3.86$, $p < .001$; $d = .50$ but decreased significantly from the immediate posttest (M = 14.05, SD = 2.50) to the delayed posttest (M = 12.87, SD = 2.71) of argumentative paragraphs; $t(68) = 3.83$, $p < .001$; $d = .45$. The effect size for the analysis of descriptive paragraphs ($d = .50$) was medium while that of argumentative paragraphs ($d = .45$) was low according to Cohen's (1988) standards.

Figure 8 below shows the changes of *communicative effectiveness* in the pretest, immediate posttest and delayed posttest of descriptive and argumentative paragraphs of the TBLT group.

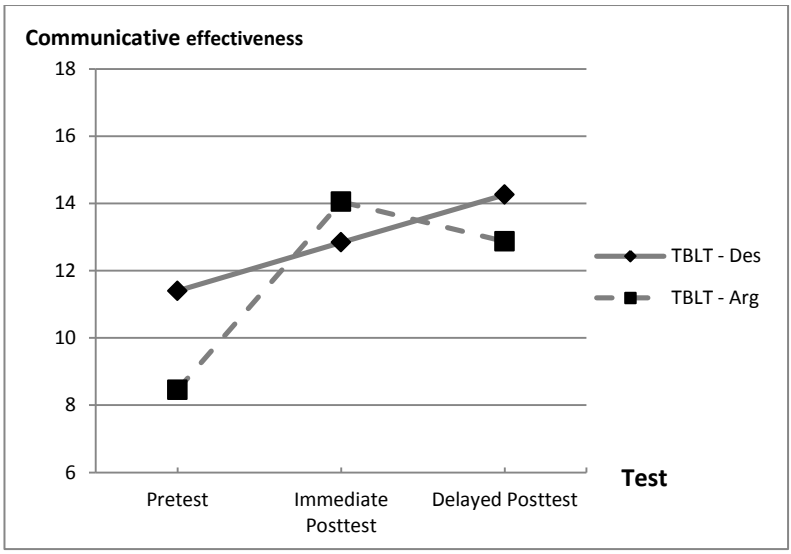

Figure 8: Changes of *communicative effectiveness* of TBLT students' texts in the pretest, immediate posttest and delayed posttest

4.3 Differential effect of PPP and TBLT on students' written output

Independent samples t-tests administered with the pretests confirm that the scores of the PPP and TBLT groups were equivalent in terms of *D* values ($t(136) = 1.39$, $p = .16$; $d = .24$ and $t(136) = .31$, $p = .76$; $d = .06$ for descriptive and argumentative paragraphs respectively), ratios of grammatical errors per tokens ($t(136) = .31$, $p = .76$; $d = .14$ and $t(136) = 1.76$, $p = .08$; $d = .30$), structural properties ($t(136) = .96$, $p = .34$; $d = .16$ and $t(136) = 1.27$, $p = .21$; $d = .15$) and communicative effectiveness ($t(136) = .30$, $p = .76$; $d = .04$ and $t(136) = .43$, $p = .66$, $d = .07$) at the beginning of the course.

A one-way MANOVA conducted with all four text features of the immediate posttest of descriptive and argumentative paragraphs revealed that there was a statistically significant difference between the PPP and TBLT conditions, $F(8, 129) = 4.01$, $p < .001$; Wilk's $\lambda = .80$, $\eta_P^2 = .20$. The effect size for this analysis ($\eta_P^2 = .20$) was high according to Murphy and Myors' (2004) standards. However, a one-way MANOVA conducted with all four text features of the delayed posttest of descriptive

and argumentative paragraphs revealed that there was no significant difference between the PPP and TBLT condition, F (8, 129) = 1.52, p = .16; Wilk's λ = .91.

Post-hoc tests using independent samples t-tests were conducted to identify the differences between the PPP and TBLT groups in the immediate posttest. Table 12 summarizes the results of the independent samples t-tests of the immediate posttests of writing.

Table 12: Results of independent samples t-tests of the immediate posttests of writing of the PPP group

	PPP		TBLT				
	M	SD	M	SD	*t*	*p*	*d*
Descriptive paragraphs							
Lexical diversity	63.0	11.7	69.9	17.5	2.73	.007**	.46
Linguistic accuracy	.065	.027	.077	.039	2.08	.04*	.36
Structural properties	8.23	1.11	7.87	1.34	1.73	.086	.29
Communicative effectiveness	13.3	2.85	12.8	3.20	.96	.34	.016
Argumentative paragraphs							
Lexical diversity	62.4	11.2	70.6	16.6	3.36	.001**	.58
Linguistic accuracy	.05	.020	.061	.030	2.69	.008**	.44
Structural properties	9.30	1.11	8.98	1.22	2.0	.047*	.27
Communicative effectiveness	14.4	2.40	14.1	2.50	.94	.35	.12

* p < .05 ** p < .01

In the immediate posttest, students of the TBLT condition had significantly higher scores for *lexical diversity* than the PPP condition for descriptive paragraphs; t (136) = 2.73, p = .007; d = .46 and for argumentative paragraphs; t(136) = 3.36, p = .001; d = .58. The effect sizes for these analyses (d = .46 and d = .58) were found to be low and medium respectively according to Cohen's (1988) standards. Students in the PPP condition made significantly fewer *grammatical errors* than those in the TBLT condition for both descriptive and argumentative paragraphs; t (136) = 2.08, p = .04; d = .36 and t(136) = 2.69, p = .008; d = .44 respectively. The effect sizes for these analyses (d = .36 and d = .44) were found to be low according to Cohen's

(1988) standards. Regarding the *structural properties*, students in the PPP condition had significantly higher scores than those in the TBLT condition; $t(136) = 2.0$, $p = .047$; $d = .27$. The effect size for this analysis was low according to Cohen's (1988) standards.

4.4 Changes of students' self-regulation in the PPP and TBLT conditions

4.4.1 Changes of students' self-regulation in the PPP condition

4.4.1.1 Quantitative data

Table 13 shows the data from the self-reported questionnaires of students in the PPP condition in the pretest, immediate posttest and delayed posttest. In general, students' scores decreased from the pretest to the posttest, but increased it from the immediate posttest to the delayed posttest.

Table 13: Changes of the PPP students' self-regulatory writing strategies

	Pretest	Immediate Posttest	Delayed Posttest
Self-regulatory writing strategies	4.18 (.829)	4.04 (.776)	4.28 (.664)
Environmental processes	4.76 (.981)	4.54 (.940)	4.72 (.898)
Behavioral processes	3.26 (1.06)	3.15 (1.14)	3.50 (.793)
Personal processes	4.54 (.953)	4.42 (.971)	4.64 (.777)

SD in parentheses

RM-ANOVAs determine that there were no significant differences in students' scores on self-regulation of environmental, behavioral and personal processes in this group. For the overall self-regulatory writing strategies, a repeated measures ANOVA showed that students' scores in the PPP condition showed a significant change, $F(1.93, 131) = 3.51$, $p = .034$, $\eta_P^2 = .049$. The effect size for this analysis ($\eta_P^2 = .049$) was medium according to Murphy and Myors' (2004) standards.

Table 14 below shows the results of RM-ANOVAs of the self-regulation data of the PPP group.

Table 14: Results of repeated measures ANOVAs of the PPP condition – self-regulation

Self-regulation	*MS*	*df*	*F*	*p*	η_P^2
Self-regulatory writing strategies	1.06	1.93	3.51	.034*	.049
Environmental processes	.94	1.86	1.67	.19	.024
Behavioral processes	2.34	1.91	3.07	.052	.043
Personal processes	.87	1.99	2.21	.113	.032

* $p < .05$

Post-hoc tests using paired samples t-tests showed that students in this group only improved their scores on *self-regulatory writing strategies* significantly between the immediate posttest (M = 4.04, SD = .78) and delayed posttest (M = 4.28, SD = .66); with $t(68) = -2.64$, $p = .01$; $d = .33$. The effect size for this analysis ($d = .33$) was found to be low according to Cohen's (1988) standards. There was neither significant decrease of scores on *self-regulatory writing strategies* between the pretest and immediate posttest nor significant increase from the pretest to the delayed posttest.

Figure 9 visualizes the changes of students' self-regulation of the environmental, behavioral and personal processes from the pretest to the immediate and delayed posttests in the PPP group.

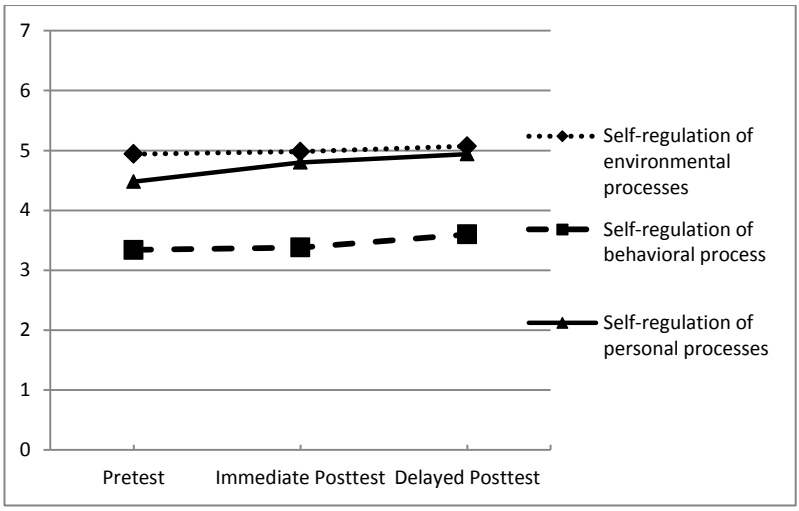

Figure 9: Changes of self-regulation of PPP students in the pretest, immediate posttest and delayed posttest

4.4.1.2 Qualitative data

Regarding the self-regulation of *environmental processes*, twelve out of fifteen respondents from the PPP condition reported that they had more sources to ask for help as compared to the time they learned writing skills at high school. One of the respondents said:

> I mostly depended on myself when I wrote at high school. In case I wanted feedback, I would wait until the teacher marked my paper and read her comments. At the university, besides seeking for help from the teacher during the writing course, I sometimes surfed the internet to find ways to solve some problems I had when I was writing. (PPP1-Envi-Respondent5)

These respondents said that they did not search for help from different sources at high school because of the learning conditions there. One of the respondents said:

> At high school, our teacher didn't allow us to ask our friends for help in class because talking to each other would make the class very noisy. In addition, we were not allowed to bring a laptop or use a mobile phone to check up new vocabulary. It was the school regulations. (PPP2-Envi-Respondent2)

However, all students from the three focus groups said that although they had more sources to look for help than at high school, they mostly based their work on the learning materials given by the teacher. One of the respondents said:

> Whenever I needed something for my writing, the first thing I did was opening the learning materials that our teacher gave us. I thought everything I needed was there. I did not find it very necessary to look for help from other sources except when I wanted to translate a Vietnamese term, especially a proper noun into English. (PPP3-Envi-Respondent3)

Videos of classroom and pair-work activities indicated what the respondents said was true. Observations of these video clips showed that most of students followed their teacher's instructions step-by-step during the *presentation* and *practice* stages. Students sat in the same seats from the beginning to the end of each class session, did most of their exercises individually, and took notes during the class sessions. During the *production* stage of their lessons, students opened their learning materials to search for vocabulary, grammar rules and ideas to write. A few of them asked their teacher or friends for help when they were not sure about the use of a particular word in a specific context. Dictionaries were put on the table but not many students used them when they were writing.

With regard to the self-regulation of *behavioral processes*, all respondents from the PPP group reported that they did not find it necessary to self-monitor their writing process, give reward or punishment to themselves when they could or could not finish their texts. One of the respondents said:

> I did not need to track my own writing performance nor reward or punish myself for accomplishing or not accomplishing my writing texts. We all had to write during our class time. The teacher gave us approximately fifty minutes for each writing task. I could often manage to fulfill my first draft within the time given. I did not find it very difficult to write my text within the time given because almost everything I needed for my texts such as vocabulary, grammar and ideas were there in the learning materials. I also had chance to do different exercises to practice these things. (PPP2-Beha-Respondent4)

Students of this group did not report any self-verbalization, i.e. "personal articulation to enhance the process of writing" (Zimmerman & Risemberg, 1997, p.

79) during their writing process either. Some videos of students' pair-work showed that they sometimes read aloud some parts of their texts when they wanted to check if the word order of the phrases sounded grammatically correct. However, in general, there was very little evidence that students self-verbalized while writing.

As for the self-regulation of *personal processes*, all respondents from the PPP condition reported that they did not have to plan their time for writing because the time limits were clearly set by the teacher. In other words, they were given a specific time for doing each exercise and for writing and revising each writing draft.

These respondents also said that they wanted to have good marks by the end of the course. However, they said that the writing tasks were more complicated than the sentence-building or sentence-combining exercises they did at high school, so they were not sure they could get good marks on the tests or not.

All respondents also reported that they did not have to build the revision checklist or any "self-evaluative standards" (Zimmerman & Risemberg, 1997, p. 79) by themselves because it was available in the learning materials. These checklists were assessed as easy to use by the students because they reminded the students of what they had learned during their class sessions and what to pay attention with a view to producing a good text. One of the respondents said:

> I found no reason why I should build a revision checklist for myself. I could find one at the end of each chapter in the learning material. Our teacher asked us to use these checklists whenever we finished our writing. I just followed her instruction. After all, that was what she expected to see in our texts, I think. (PPP1-Beha-Respondent3)

In the same vein, one respondent from another focus group said:

> Well, I think the revision checklist is helpful in some way. After finishing my text, I read the questions in the checklist and checked if my text would give a "yes" to all of them. If not, then, I would fix it before submitting it to our teacher. (PPP2-Beha-Respondent1)

Another respondent had a slightly different idea, she said:

> Sometimes, I think the checklist is not really necessary. I think its main function is to remind us of what we had learned in our lessons before writing. But because I followed my teacher's instructions and the learning

> materials, all of these guided me to write my text with all the features listed in the checklist. (PPP2-Beha-Respondent5)

Videos of classroom and pair-work activities showed that students managed to finish each exercise or writing task within the time limits the teacher had set. When good students finished their exercises or tasks, they waited for the others to finish theirs. The time limits the teacher set for each activity were doable for most students in the classroom. If the students found they needed more time, they would ask the teacher to give them a few more minutes.

4.4.2 Changes of students' self-regulation in the TBLT condition

4.3.2.1 Quantitative data

Table 15 shows the data from the self-reported questionnaires of students in the TBLT condition in the pretest, immediate posttest and delayed posttest. In general, students in this condition increased the scores of their self-regulation from the pretest to the immediate posttest, and from the immediate posttest to the delayed posttest for all three types of self-regulation as well as their overall self-regulatory strategies

Table 15: Changes of the TBLT students' self-regulatory writing strategies

	Pretest	Immediate Posttest	Delayed Posttest
Self-regulatory writing strategies	4.24 (.890)	4.34 (.803)	4.54 (.745)
Environmental processes	4.94 (1.10)	4.99 (.784)	5.07 (.856)
Behavioral processes	3.34 (1.18)	3.38 (1.16)	3.60 (1.11)
Personal processes	4.48 (.921)	4.80 (.663)	4.94 (.722)

SD in parentheses

RM-ANOVAs show that students in the TBLT condition significantly improved their scores of self-regulatory writing strategies $F(1.91, 130) = 5.63$, $p < .001$, $\eta_P^2 = .076$ and their scores of personal self-regulation, $F(1.75, 119) = 11.3$, $p < .001$, $\eta_P^2 = .14$. The effect sizes for these analyses were found to be high according to Murphy and Myors' (2004) standards. There were no significant differences in students' scores of environmental and behavioral self-regulation. Table 16 shows the results of RM-ANOVAs of self-regulation data of the TBLT condition.

Table 16: Results of repeated measures ANOVAs of the TBLT group – self-regulation

Self-regulation	*MS*	*df*	*F*	*p*	η_P^2
Self-regulatory writing strategies	1.65	1.91	5.63	.005**	.076
Environmental processes	.35	1.79	.69	.48	.01
Behavioral processes	1.42	1.91	2.20	.117	.031
Personal processes	4.44	1.75	11.3	.000**	.14

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

Post-hoc tests using paired samples t-tests showed that students in the TBLT condition significantly improved their scores on self-regulatory writing strategies between the pretest (M = 4.24, SD = .80) and the delayed posttest (M = 4.94, SD = .72); $t = 3.29$, $p = .002$, $d = .92$ and between the immediate posttest (M = 4.34, SD = .80) and the delayed posttest (M = 4.94, SD = .72); $t = 2.43$, $p = .018$, $d = .79$. The effect sizes ($d = .92$ and $d = .79$) were found to be high according to Cohen's (1988) standards. There was no significant difference between the pretest and the immediate posttest.

Post-hoc tests using paired samples t-tests revealed that students in the TBLT condition only significantly increased their self-regulation of *personal processes* between the pretest (M = 4.48, SD = .92) and immediate posttest (M = 4.80, SD = .66) with $t(68) = 2.79$, $p = .007$; $d = .40$; and between the pretest (M = 4.48, SD = .92) and the delayed posttest (M = 4.94, SD = .72) with $t(68) = 4.67$, $p < .001$; $d = .56$; but not between the immediate and delayed posttests. The effect sizes ($d = .40$ and $d = .56$) for these analyses were found to be medium according to Cohen's (1988) standards.

Figure 10 shows the changes of students' self-regulation of the environmental, behavioral and personal processes from the pretest to the immediate and delayed posttests of the TBLT condition.

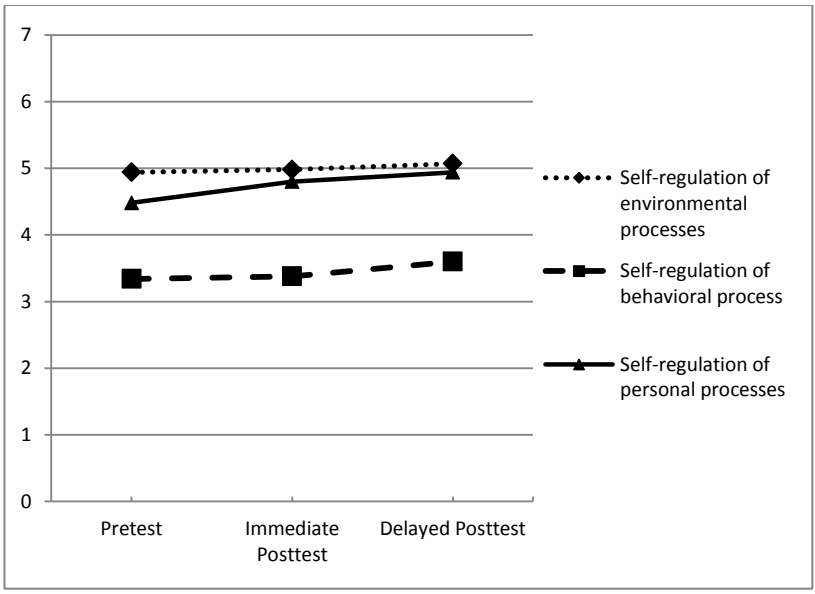

Figure 10: Changes of self-regulation of TBLT students in the pretest, immediate posttest and delayed posttest

4.3.2.2 Qualitative data

With regard to the self-regulation of *environmental processes,* all respondents said that they mostly asked for help from their teachers when they were at high school. For example, five respondents in the three focus groups of the TBLT condition reported that they used to ask their teachers at high school to show them whether they could use a particular word to fill in the blank of a writing exercise or whether they combined the two sentences into one correctly. Regarding learning in this TBLT condition, all respondents reported that they looked for help from more sources such as the internet, dictionaries or grammar books. One of the respondents said:

> At high school, whenever I needed help or had problems with my writing exercises, I usually asked my teacher for help. At university, I often surfed the internet, read sample essay books or asked my roommates at the dorm who were second- or third-year students of English Studies. I also checked up vocabulary in the dictionaries. (TBLT3-Envi-Respondent5)

When being asked about the level of freedom they had in a writing class in this condition, all respondents said that they were free to choose a place to sit to write their texts. One of the respondents elaborated:

> I like the freedom I had when learning this course. I was free to choose a place that I felt the most comfortable sitting to write my text. When I wanted to ask for help from a friend, I could come to him or her and ask. (TBLT2-Envi-Respondent3)

However, seven out of fifteen respondents said that they would like it better if they could write at home because that was where they felt the most comfortable. One respondent said:

> I think it was unnecessary for us to write our texts in class. After I had explored the sample texts given by the teacher and built up the plan to write, it would be better if I could choose to write at home whenever I wanted to. I think writing at home will be more inspiring than writing in class because I feel more comfortable to sit at my desk at home than in class. (TBLT1-Envi-Respondent3)

Another respondent from the same group said:

> I agree with her [Respondent 3] that it would be more comfortable to write at home and submit our texts to our teacher a week later. However, I think it would be better for our final exam when we wrote in class. I don't feel comfortable in the exam room either but I have to write a good text there, too. So, it's better to train myself and be prepared for the exam by being used to writing in class. (TBLT1-Envi-Respondent2)

Videos of classroom and students' pair-work showed that students in the TBLT condition consulted different resources from the pre-task phase to the revision stage. They made use of the availability of dictionaries, grammar books, sample essay books and internet to look up the meaning of difficult words, find appropriate vocabulary to put into their texts, look for interesting ideas or check a grammar rule they were not sure about. During the first class session, students seemed to be confused by all the freedom they had. When they were more familiar with it during later sessions, they showed they could be very independent and active in using resources as well as choosing a "good" place to sit to write their texts. Some students chose to sit near a good student to ask for help more conveniently while some others

chose to sit at the end of the classroom or far from other students to avoid distractions.

Regarding self-regulation of *behavioral processes,* five respondents said that they usually felt very tired after each lesson. Therefore, they would like to have a free evening when they could do whatever they liked after they had finished their first drafts. One of these respondents said:

> I was usually very tired because I had many things to think of when doing the [writing] task and I felt my brain had worked much harder than usual. Therefore, sometimes, after I finished my text, I asked my friends out for a coffee. (TBLT1-Beha-Respondent 1)

In the same vein, one respondent from another focus group said:

> I guess my friends and I had to work really hard during our writing lessons, much harder than in other subjects. We had to learn how to write mostly by ourselves. I usually felt tired, even exhausted, especially when I just finished revising my first draft. It was hard to figure out by myself how to improve the text with no specific comments on my text content, organization and grammar. (TBLT3-Beha-Respondent4)

Videos of students' pair-work showed some self-regulation of behavioral processes among the students. For example, when students read the sample texts, some of them articulated a sentence they were not sure about and repeated the sentence until they thought they understood it. In addition, some of them counted the number of words they had written to see whether they fulfilled the task requirements regarding text length. However, not every student being recorded did these things. These self-monitoring and self-verbalization strategies were used by only two out of six students being recorded.

The focused group interviews and the videos also provided a lot of information on students' self-regulation of *personal processes.* Nine respondents from the TBLT condition reported that they had learned to plan and manage their time better. One of the respondents said:

> At high school, I didn't have to do many things when I learned writing skills, so I didn't learn how to plan and manage my time for my writing. For example, when we learned how to write a letter, the teacher gave us an incomplete letter with some blanks and some phrases. All we

> had to do was choosing an appropriate phrase to fill in each blank. It didn't take us much time to do this activity. However, at university, we had to do different small tasks by ourselves within a class session. Thus, I had to learn how to manage my time better so that by the end of the class session, I finished the tasks that the teacher required me to do. (TBLT2-Personal-Respondent1)

These respondents also recognized the opportunities for time planning and managing that the TBLT course gave them. A respondent said:

> At university, we had to learn by ourselves most of the time; therefore, we tried our best to finish our work on time. The time pressure made us work at our own pace better. (TBLT2-Personal-Respondent5)

Another respondent said:

> I learned to arrange my work reasonably so that I could find time for surfing the internet for interesting ideas for my writing. (TBLT3-Personal-Respondent5)

In addition, these respondents reported that they would like to improve their writing skills by the end of the course and get good marks for the tests, which is a manifestation of goal setting strategy. One of the respondents said:

> Writing skill is a subject by itself at the university and not integrated with other skills in the English subject as in high school, so the scores from the writing course will have an impact on our GPA [general point average]. I would like to get good marks for this course, so I have invested a lot of my time and effort into it. (TBLT1-Personal-Respodent1)

All respondents said that they were more involved in the writing tasks at university. They reported having developed many cognitive strategies during the course. One of the respondents said:

> Whenever I received a writing task, I had to read the requirements carefully and thought of the resources I could use to complete the task. I felt I was much more involved in the task than I did before. (TBLT3-Personal-Respodent5)

Another respondent from the same focus group added:

> The topic for the writing task that the teacher gave us was quite broad, so I had to think very carefully to choose what to write, then I limited myself to my choice and developed my ideas from that choice.

> Later, I made an outline for my text with all the ideas I had developed. (TBLT3-Personal-Respondent4)

One of the respondents also said:

> I had more freedom to write at the university, so I could try different grammar structures and new vocabulary to make my text interesting. I also learned how to state my opinion directly instead of beating around the bushes as I used to. (TBLT1-Personal-Respondent4)

Another one said:

> I've learned how to generate ideas, organize them and put them into my writing. I've also learned to choose an appropriate word to put into a specific context and learned interesting ideas or vocabulary that my friends used in their texts. (TBLT3-Personal-Respodent5).

Another opinion from this group was:

> I've learned a lot of things from this writing course, from organizing my ideas effectively to checking my own spelling and grammatical errors as well as writing a good title for my text. (TBLT1-Personal-Respondent5).

Videos of pair-work activities also supported what students reported. All the three pairs showed that students worked very hard individually and with a partner to produce a text as well as to revise it until it was good. Students read the task very carefully, discussed with a friend whether they understood the task in the same way, drew a mind map for organizing their ideas, wrote and rewrote a phrase or a sentence until they were satisfied with it. During the first sessions, there were more interactions between them, but later on, students worked mostly by themselves. They only asked their friends for help when they were not sure which word was better to put into the text.

4.5 Differential effects of PPP and TBLT on students' self-regulation

4.5.1 Quantitative data

Independent samples t-tests conducted with data on the pretest of students' self-regulatory strategies showed that the PPP and TBLT were not significantly different in self-regulating their environmental processes ($t(136) = 1.02$, $p = .31$; $d = .17$), behavioral processes ($t(136) = .39$, $p = .69$; $d = .07$), personal processes ($t(136) = .35$,

p = .73; *d* = .06) and overall self-regulatory writing strategies (*t*(136) = .42, *p* = .67; *d* = .07).

A one-way MANOVA conducted with the immediate posttest of self-regulation revealed that there was a statistically significant difference between the PPP condition and TBLT condition, *F* (4, 133) = 4.29, *p* < .001; Wilk's λ = .89, η_P^2 = .11. The effect size for this analysis (η_P^2 = .11) was medium according to Murphy and Myors' (2004) standards. However, a one-way MANOVA conducted with the delayed posttest of self-regulation revealed that there was no statistically significant difference between the PPP and TBLT conditions, *F* (4, 133) = 2.04, *p* = .093; Wilk's λ = .94.

Post-hoc tests using independent samples t-tests were conducted to identify the differences between the PPP and TBLT conditions in the immediate posttest. Table 17 summarizes the results of the independent samples t-tests of the immediate posttest of self-regulation.

Table 17: Results of independent samples t-tests of the immediate posttest of self-regulation

	PPP		TBLT				
Self-regulation	M	SD	M	SD	*t*	*p*	*d*
Self-regulatory writing strategies	4.04	.80	4.34	.78	2.24	.026*	.38
Environmental processes	4.54	.94	4.98	.78	2.97	.003**	.51
Behavioral processes	3.15	1.14	3.37	1.16	1.15	.25	.19
Personal processes	4.42	.97	4.80	.66	2.74	.007**	.46

* p < .05

** *p* < .01

In the immediate posttest, students of the TBLT condition had significantly higher scores for self-regulatory writing strategies than those in the PPP condition; *t* (136) = 2.24, *p* = .026; *d* = .38. The effect size for this analysis (*d* = .38) was found to be low according to Cohen's (1988) standards. In addition, students in the TBLT condition also had significantly higher scores on their self-regulation of environmental and personal processes; *t*(136) = 2.97, *p* = .003; *d* = .51 and *t*(136) = 2.74, *p* = .007; *d* = .46 respectively. The effect sizes for these analyses (*d* = .51 and *d*

= .46) were found to be medium and low respectively according to Cohen's (1988) standards.

4.5.2 Qualitative data

The qualitative data from focused group interviews and indirect observation via videos provided additional information on differences between the PPP condition and TBLT condition in term of self-regulation. The focused group interviews revealed that more students from the TBLT condition reported their self-regulation of environmental, behavioral and personal processes than the PPP students and provided more specific details about them.

Regarding the self-regulation of ***environmental processes***, ten students from three different focus groups of the TBLT condition reported that they used dictionaries, grammar books, sample essay books and the internet almost all the time during their course while there were only three students in the PPP condition who reported they did these things. For the TBLT students, the most popular source of reference was bilingual dictionaries. One of the respondents said:

> I brought two dictionaries of English-Vietnamese and Vietnamese-English with me to all class sessions. I needed them to look up the new words from the sample essays and to choose appropriate words to put into my texts. I had used dictionaries before at my high school but I used it much more often in this course. (TBLT2-Environment-Respondent1)

The least popular source of reference among these students was the internet because not many of them possessed a laptop which they could bring to the classroom.

It is worth noticing that students in the TBLT condition reported that they chose a good place to sit so that they could work effectively while those in the PPP condition thought it was not necessary to move inside the classroom. One of the respondents in the TBLT group said:

> When I read the sample texts, I liked to sit with a friend so that we could share our ideas. However, when I started writing, I preferred to sit alone to avoid the noises that my friends made. When I revised my texts, I

> would like to sit near a good student because he could help me to figure out the errors from my texts and advise me on how to write a better draft. (TBLT1-Environment-Respondent3).

Videos of classroom and pair-work activities showed that about seventy percent of students in the TBLT condition used dictionaries and grammar books while only thirty percent of students in the PPP condition did similar things. Moreover, the classroom videos from the TBLT spotted that many students changed their seats in every class session while most of students in the PPP condition chose to sit at the same place from the beginning to the end of a class session and many of them sat at the same place from the beginning to the end of the course.

Regarding the self-regulation of ***behavioral processes***, students in both conditions reported that they were more involved in the writing tasks than when they were at high school. However, only students in the TBLT condition reported their self-monitoring and self-rewarding or punishing. One student in the TBLT condition said that he wrote down the time he needed for writing each draft of their texts so that he could manage his time better. He said:

> The reason I had to pay attention to the time I spent on each writing text was that I wanted to make sure I would finish my text within the time available in the final test. (TBLT2-Beha-Respondent3)

In addition, respondents from the TBLT condition also reported that they would like to reward themselves with a free evening or going out with friends after a writing lesson because they usually felt very tired after each class. These strategies were not reported in the focus group interviews of the PPP condition.

Last but not least, the clearest distinction between the PPP condition and TBLT condition was the amount of self-regulation of *personal processes* between the two. Thirteen respondents from the TBLT condition reported this type of self-regulation, which clearly differed from the PPP condition where no such report was found. The most popular type of personal self-regulation among students of the TBLT condition had to do with cognitive strategies. One of the respondents said:

> I learned to be more independent in my learning. I like to be free in generating ideas, organizing them and choosing whichever vocabulary I wanted for my text. (TBLT1-Personal-Respodent4)

Another respondent from the same focus group said:

> I usually had many ideas for my writing topic and chose the best one to attract my readers. I think it is boring when everyone in class write the same things following the same outlines. With this writing course, I had a variety of choice and was free to make my text interesting to readers. (TBLT1-Personal-Respodent1).

Similar reports of the use of cognitive strategies were found among the three focus group interviews of the TBLT condition.

The type of personal self-regulation which was used popularly was planning and management. As mentioned earlier (*c.f.* section 4.3.2.2) respondents from the TBLT condition reported that they learned to manage their time better with a view to completing their writing tasks on time.

In short, both the quantitative and qualitative data of the current study brought out some evidence that the students in the TBLT condition outscored the students in the PPP condition in the use of self-regulatory strategies.

Chapter 5

DISCUSSION

This chapter discusses the research results in light of the theoretical framework and previous studies on PPP, TBLT and self-regulation. The first part of the chapter addresses possible explanations for the differences and similarities in the evolution of the students' written output. The chapter continues with a discussion of students' changes with regard to self-regulatory writing strategies in each condition. The final part of this chapter addresses the question whether there were any interactions between students' writing and self-regulation skills in the current study.

5.1 Students' development of writing performance

5.1.1 Differences between the PPP and TBLT conditions

There were two most remarkable differences between the PPP and TBLT conditions in fostering the development of students' writing performance, as measured in the immediate posttest. First of all, students in the TBLT condition had significantly higher lexical diversity scores than their fellow students in the PPP condition for both descriptive and argumentative texts. Second, students in the PPP condition made significantly fewer grammatical errors than their fellow students in the TBLT condition, also for both text types. At first glance, it seems that TBLT promotes students' development of lexical diversity better, while PPP helps students more to improve their linguistic accuracy.

In fact, there are supportive arguments for the claim that TBLT enhances students' lexical diversity. Ellis' (2003) asserts that tasks provide learners with rich exposure to a wider range of language and can also create more opportunities for pushed output. In the TBLT condition of this study, students' input did not only come from the teacher' five sample texts in each task sheet, but also from a richer source of sample essay books, other materials that students found useful for their texts such as newspaper articles, travel books, writing textbooks, from interactions with friends, and from searching good texts in the internet. Since students in the TBLT condition were not provided with the kind of prescriptive learning materials from the teacher as the students in the PPP condition were, they felt obliged to consult as many resources as possible. In addition, because students in the TBLT condition chose the input depending on their proficiency level and had to make their own decisions regarding the vocabulary they would include in their texts, possibly after checking bilingual dictionaries, they may have remembered the new words longer and recalled them in the posttests more easily than those in the PPP condition who were provided with lists of vocabulary in the learning materials. In addition, students in the PPP condition may have felt all lexical items were available from the teacher's materials, and therefore, may not have felt the necessity to look for more vocabulary, even though they were allowed to access to dictionaries, sample essay books or internet in case they wanted to consult them.

PPP proponents' claims support the outperformance of PPP students in term of linguistic accuracy as compared to those in the TBLT condition. For example, Thornburry and Harmer's (1999) claim that the control of pace and content of PPP lessons minimizes the errors that students make in their text. This supports many Asian teachers' belief that PPP is useful in improving students' grammar knowledge (Carless, 2009). For an Asian language teaching context which focuses on error-free written products, PPP is appealing to them for this very reason. In the current study, students in the PPP conditions were provided with the grammar structures that their teacher thought they would need in their text. The presentation of the grammar structures was followed by exercises (from controlled to less controlled) which required students to use these structures in specific contexts (see Appendix 1). Students started to write only after they had been presented and had practiced these grammatical structures.

In addition, the teacher's differential feedback on students' first drafts may further explain the lexical diversity outperformance of the TBLT condition and linguistic accuracy gains of the PPP condition. More specifically, students in the TBLT condition received very general feedback on whether their descriptions were interesting or their arguments were convincing or not. In an effort to make their texts more interesting, students may have added some adjectives to their texts, changed some vocabulary, or rephrased some sentences in their descriptions or arguments, which resulted in more diverse vocabulary in their texts. An example of such efforts can be found in the second draft of a TBLT student in Appendix 5. This student added four more adjectives, two completely new sentences, and rephrased nearly half of sentences in the second draft of her text when she saw the teacher's comment that her first draft could have been made more interesting.

Meanwhile, students in the PPP condition received feedback on different features including grammatical errors. When the teacher gave feedback on students' first drafts, she mostly focused on form by underlining and labelling the errors the students made, which made it easier for them to recognize and correct these grammatical errors. Since students are typically led to believe that a good text is an error-free text (Tran, 2007), they may have focused more on correcting these errors

than on improving the lexical diversity of their texts. PPP students mostly changed their drafts in terms of grammatical feature, correcting the errors that the teacher had marked (see Appendix 4).

One more difference between the PPP and TBLT condition is the statistically higher scores for structural properties of PPP students as compared to TBLT students in the immediate posttest of the argumentative paragraph. Since students in the PPP condition were directly instructed how to organize their ideas in a paragraph, it seems reasonable that they gained better scores than their friends in the TBLT condition who had to analyze the text organization by themselves. However, it is worth noticing that students in the PPP condition outperformed their friends in the TBLT condition in argumentative paragraphs only. This could have resulted from the fact that the argumentative genre is more difficult than the descriptive genre (Applebee, 1986; Carrell & Connor, 1991; Carrell & Monroe, 1993). Because the argumentative texts are more difficult to write, students in the TBLT conditions, with no step-by-step instructions from the teacher, may have focused their attention to other things such as sharpening their arguments or choosing appropriate vocabulary rather than focusing on the structure of their texts.

In the delayed posttest, there were no longer statistical differences between the two conditions for both text types. The PPP group caught up with the TBLT group in term of lexical diversity whereas the TBLT group caught up with the PPP group in terms of linguistic accuracy after the ten-week break between the immediate and delayed posttests of writing. Regarding the narrowed gap between the two conditions in term of linguistic accuracy, this result confirms Ellis's claim (2005) that TBLT is helpful in students' acquisition of grammatical knowledge in the longer term. Since students in the TBLT group chose which grammar structures they would use in their texts, figured out the errors in their first and second drafts by themselves and did form-focused activities for the common errors they made in the post-task phase, they may have remembered some grammar rules longer and could recall them in the delayed posttest.

In addition, the increased lexical diversity in PPP students' texts in the delayed posttest which made the differences between the two conditions no longer

significant could have resulted from students' access to other sources of language after they finished their writing courses. Although students in both conditions received no writing instruction between the immediate and delayed posttest, they may have had access to the target language from English texts, television shows or internet outside the classrooms during the between-writing-test time. It is worth mentioning that students in both conditions increased their lexical diversity in the delayed posttest, not only those in the PPP condition. However, since students in the PPP condition may not have remembered the list of vocabulary given in the learning materials any longer, they may have tried applying new words acquired between the two posttests to their written output in the delayed posttest.

5.1.2 Similarities of the PPP and TBLT conditions

Despite the remarkable differences between the two groups in terms of lexical diversity and linguistic accuracy in the two genres and structural features in the argumentative genre in the immediate posttest, it is worth noticing that both groups shared an important similarity. That is, students in both conditions improved their writing performance for all four text aspects, namely lexical diversity, linguistic accuracy, structural properties and communicative effectiveness from the pretest to the immediate posttest. It seems that the specific features of the two teaching conditions were not the only factor that contributed to students' development of writing performance. The teacher, the chances for revisions and the learners themselves may have contributed to improving all students' writing performance in the current study.

5.1.2.1 The teaching conditions

Both PPP and TBLT are believed by their proponents to be effective in improving students' language proficiency, including writing skills. The current study shows that these proponents have their own reasons for their support of either the PPP or TBLT approach.

Students in the PPP condition may have benefited from the tight organization of a PPP lesson in which they were first presented with the grammar structures they

needed for their texts, ways to organize and develop their ideas and then practiced what they learned until the teacher believed that they were ready to write their own texts. Students may have been accustomed to this way of learning since most learning materials are structured this way (Richards, 2005), including the English textbooks of secondary and high schools in Vietnam (Be & Crabbe, 1999; Lap, 2005) where "the teacher typically works through one activity after another in the textbook" (Be & Crabbe, p. 8). In addition, students in the PPP condition may have improved their writing performance for the same reason that Kim (2009) found in her writing classroom, that is, PPP was helpful because step-by-step guidance helped the students feel more confident in writing their texts, and provided the teacher with more control over the students' learning process so that she could help them better.

On the other hand, although the TBLT condition was new to the students as compared to the PPP condition, TBLT students may have improved their writing performance for the following reasons. First, the writing tasks may have enabled learners to learn through communication and engagement (e.g. R. Ellis, 2003; Prabhu, 1987). From doing the subtasks such as analyzing the sample texts, planning their own texts and exchanging ideas with their friends, students learned how to produce a good written output by themselves. Second, in the TBLT condition, students were provided with opportunities to adjust the input according to their own learning levels (R. Ellis, 2003). In other words, good students may have chosen more complex vocabulary and structures to learn and put in their texts than weaker students. Thanks to that, all students may have felt comfortable and motivated to learn, and thus, improved their writing performance in the immediate posttest. The positive impact of TBLT on students' writing performance proves what Ogilvie and Dunn (2010) claim, that is, TBLT allows second language learners to acquire the target language through using it in a meaningful way and encourages learners to act as language users through their analysis of language structures and forms with which they have difficulties dealing during the task completion. Moreover, this study replicates the results of Sholihah's (2013) study in which students in the TBLT condition improved their writing ability in term of vocabulary, grammar, organization and content.

5.1.2.2 The teacher

It should be noticed that the role of the teacher in the two conditions was different. In the PPP condition, the teacher controlled the content and pace of the lesson (Lap, 2005; P. Skehan, 2003; Thornbury & Harmer, 1999) while she played the role of a manager and facilitator of students' activities in the TBLT condition (R. Ellis, 2009; Swan, 2005). However, although the teacher tried to embody the basic principles of both approaches as genuinely as possible, there were some features of her classroom behavior which did not differ across conditions. For instance, in both classes, she taught with great enthusiasm, and strongly motivated her students to work hard to write good texts during and after her courses. As a result, students in both conditions may have improved their writing performance thanks to the teacher's enthusiasm and encouragement.

5.1.2.3 Chances for revisions

Another possible reason why both approaches may have worked so well is that students received ample opportunities for revising their texts in both writing courses. Since students in both groups revised their texts repeatedly after writing their first drafts, it could have been the frequent practice and teacher's support and feedback during the revision stage (rather than the specific approach in which the revision was embedded) that helped them improve the quality of their written output. In fact, it has been proved elsewhere that students improved their writing accuracy in revised essays and their accuracy between the beginning and the end of the semester (Charlene Polio & Fleck, 1998). In the same vein, Fathman and Whalley (1990) found that students improved both text accuracy and content after revisions. However, as in Ferris's (2011) claim after reviewing various studies, revision only moderately improves the quality of the revised papers. Therefore, we are tempted to conclude that revision may have combined with other involved factors such as the teaching condition, learners' motivation and the mere effect of practice to contribute to students' development of writing performance in the current study.

5.1.2.4 The learners

The learners participating in this study did not differ in term of age, language proficiency and the way of learning English at high school (*c.f.* Part 3.3: Research participants). Therefore, they shared some features that may have influenced students' learning outcomes at the end of the two writing courses. First, these students wanted to get good marks by the end of the semester. In fact, all respondents in the focus group interviews admitted this when they were asked about their self-regulated writing strategies. This desire may have motivated the students to try their best to learn in whichever teaching condition they had been put into. Second, because these students were at the first semester of their undergraduate study and had little experience with learning how to write at high school, they may have been aware that writing skills would be important for other subjects in the coming semesters. As a result, they may have made additional efforts to learn how to write, which contributed to their improvement in writing performance in the posttests.

In short, students' progress in an ESL/EFL classroom cannot be explained by only one ingredient - the specific teaching approach used there. Other factors such as the teacher's supportiveness, chances for practice and revisions combined with students' desire to get good marks may have contributed to students' language development.

5.2 Students' changes of self-regulatory writing strategies

5.2.1 Changes of the PPP condition

A general tendency in the changes of self-regulation of students in the PPP group was that they decreased the scores of all their self-regulation processes from the pretest to the immediate posttest. The current study supports the view that a PPP classroom is a low SRL classroom. Since self-regulated learning refers to "self-directive processes and self-beliefs" (Zimmerman, 2008, p. 166), the way of teaching and learning in a PPP classroom may have prevented students from being self-regulated learners. In other words, students had few opportunities for environmental structuring (creating an effective writing setting) and self-selecting models such as sample essays, books or tutors. In particular, students of the PPP group in this study did not have many

opportunities to develop their *environmental* self-regulation. In other words, they did not have many chances to use context-related strategies since they wrote their texts using the materials provided by the teacher. As a result, they did not need to select, organize or create an effective writing environment themselves, for example, by choosing a place in class they felt comfortable to sit when writing their texts. In addition, although they were allowed to use resources such as dictionaries, model essays and their friends if they wanted to, they felt that the materials given by the teacher and her instructions were enough. Therefore, the decline of students' self-regulation of environmental structuring processes right after they finished the PPP writing course is logical.

Students in the PPP group also decreased their *behavioral* self-regulation in the immediate posttest. Zimmerman and Risemberg (1997) refer to self-regulation of behavioral processes as the adaptive use of "a motoric performance strategy" and this strategy type will be "continued or modified depending on feedback showing its differential effectiveness" (p.77). Self-regulation of behavior includes self-monitoring (tracking one's own performance overtly), self-consequence (giving a reward or punishment to oneself upon accomplishing a writing task) and self-verbalization (personal articulation to enhance the process of writing). It appeared that the learning condition of the PPP group did not encourage this type of self-regulation. Regarding self-monitoring activities, students' written texts were produced from the outline they had built during the presentation and practice phases. All the activities in these two phases had to be completed within the time limits the teacher set. Therefore, students did not need to track their writing performance, an example of self-monitoring behavior, by keeping a record of how many words they had written, for example.

Also, the PPP condition did not put such a hard pressure on students as compared to the TBLT condition. In fact, students in this condition did not think it was necessary to give themselves a reward when they finished their text because they had built up their texts step-by-step, from vocabulary, grammar structure to text organization, following the instructions of the teacher. However, it is worth noticing that there was a significant increase of behavioral self-regulation from the immediate posttest to the delayed posttest. A possible explanation for this significant change was

that during this period, the effect of the PPP course on their behavioral regulation faded away. Therefore, they may have regained some behavioral self-regulation they had before the PPP writing course. In addition, their reviews for the final tests of other courses they learned in the same semester such as reading, listening and speaking may have made them more aware of the importance of behavioral self-regulation.

A similar tendency with behavioral self-regulation was found in the PPP students' self-regulation of *personal* processes, that is, the scores of personal self-regulation decreased from the pretest to the immediate posttest and then increased significantly from the immediate posttest to the delayed posttest. These types of self-regulation strategy include time planning and managing, goal setting, self-evaluating, using cognitive strategies and imagining. In particular, students did not need to plan or manage their time because their teacher did that for them already; they did not have to set their own standards for success since their teacher's comments on their first and second drafts showed them what was good and not good in their texts; they were not compelled to stimulate their cognitive strategies since they were instructed how to outline their texts and revise their drafts.

In short, information gained from the focus group interviews and videos of classroom and pair-work activities showed that students in the PPP group were not provided with favorable conditions to self-regulate their own learning. The teacher seemed to take control over most classroom activities by instructing her students basing on the learning materials and by assigning fixed time limits for each activity. As a consequence, students had very few opportunities to self-regulate their learning process.

5.2.2 Changes of the TBLT condition

While there were fluctuations of self-regulation in the PPP group from the pretest to the immediate and delayed posttests, students in the TBLT group showed an upward trend for their overall self-regulation as well as their self-regulation of environmental structuring, behavioral and personal processes over the time. The results of the current study confirm that TBLT creates good conditions for students to

develop their self-regulated learning since they had a certain level of control over their learning processes.

For *environmental* self-regulation, despite being asked to write in class as their fellow students in the PPP condition, students in the TBLT condition did not have limited opportunities to self-regulate their contexts as their friends. They chose to move to any place in the classroom at any time they liked as long as they felt comfortable to conduct the tasks. In addition, they were free to choose any resources they found useful for their learning. Since students in the TBLT condition were not provided with the learning materials as their friends in the PPP conditions, they were not limited in terms of the resources they could use. As a result, students in this group used anything they found resourceful such as bilingual dictionaries to check up vocabulary, a grammar book to consult a grammar structure they were not sure about or their friends whom they could ask for help.

There was no significant increase of *behavioral* self-regulation between the pretest and immediate posttest and between the pretest and delayed posttest of the TBLT group. Although some students reported that they liked to reward themselves after completing the task, not all students felt the same way. Students with higher level language proficiency may not have thought that the task was that difficult for them and they did not feel the need to reward themselves for task completion. In addition, since students in this group were busy completing their writing within the class hour, not all of them tracked their own performance by counting the number of words they had written, which is an indication of behavioral self-regulation. My interpretation of this is that TBLT created some conditions for students to self-regulate their behaviors. The pressure from learning how to write a text mostly by themselves urged students to use some self-regulatory strategies such as self-monitoring, self-consequence or self-verbalization. However, not all students of the TBLT groups perceived the pressure to the same extent. Better students may not have felt it equally necessary to use these strategies as the weaker students did. For that reason, there was not a significant difference of the self-regulation of behavioral processes between the pretest and immediate posttest.

The most remarkable development of TBLT students' self-regulation is that of *personal* self-regulation. There were significant increases from the pretest to the immediate posttest and from the pretest to the delayed posttest. Students in the TBLT group reported that they used their cognitive and affective strategies more often after they learned under the task-based condition. The increased use of these adaptive strategies resulted from the fact that they completed the tasks mostly by themselves. They were free to plan the time they needed for each subtask, to set specific goals for their tasks, to evaluate their first drafts by themselves, to build up their own outlines and do everything they could to have a good written output. As a result, they learned whether they should continue a strategy that they found useful or they should modify the one that did not work for them. During the process of being involved in such complex meaningful tasks of writing, they developed their self-regulation of their personal processes.

5.3 Interaction between writing and self-regulation

It has been claimed that increased self-regulation will enhance writing performance because writing requires learners to self-regulate and control their attention to manage their writing environment (Bereiter & Scardamalia, 1987; Graham & R. Harris, 2000; Kellogg, 1987; Sarah Ransdell & Levy, 1996; Zimmerman & Risemberg, 1997). In addition, planning, monitoring, evaluating and revising are some self-regulatory mechanisms which can be integrated into writing subroutines to help writers accomplish a writing task effectively (Zimmerman & Risemberg, 1997). In the current study, however, students in both the PPP and TBLT condition developed their writing performance in the immediate posttest although they had different levels of self-regulation. Therefore, one may ask whether self-regulation really had an impact on students' writing because students in the two conditions only differed significantly in the two aspects of lexical diversity and linguistic accuracy.

It should be noted that students' writing performance in the current study was evaluated based on their writing products - their written output in the posttests - rather than the direct observation of their writing processes. Within that context, the way of teaching in a PPP condition seemed to lead learners step-by-step towards

producing a written product while the TBLT condition required students to build up the texts by themselves through the process of conducting the writing task. In other words, the focus of the TBLT condition of the current study was more on the process than on the product. Therefore, self-regulation may have had impact on TBLT students' writing process. Unfortunately, only writing products were measured in the current study.

In addition, time restrictions of the writing tests may have influenced the written output of students in the TBLT condition, who were not trained to write within strict time limits as those in the PPP condition. Therefore, students in the TBLT condition may not have performed at their best during test time although they reported higher self-regulation scores than those in the PPP condition.

Therefore, there were no significant positive correlations of writing and self-regulation in the immediate posttest of the current study. In fact, the result of the correlation analysis between self-regulatory strategy scores and composite scores for writing (calculated by standardizing the scores of the four measures, namely lexical diversity, linguistic accuracy, structural properties and communicative effectiveness with SPSS) is not significant, $r(138) = .10$, $p = .24$. This discussion manifests the two metaphors by Prof. Koen Jaspaert, an experienced researcher of language education from KU Leuven (personal communication, November 2013). He said that teaching students with PPP is like building a wall. We can measure how tall the wall has become and how many bricks have been added. However, teaching students with TBLT is like planting a tree, we can measure how tall it has grown but can't tell exactly which part of the tree has grown.

In short, because students' writing performance was measured based on their product only, not on the process, no evidence of interaction between students' development of writing and self-regulation was found in the current study.

Chapter 6

CONCLUSSION

In this chapter, the main findings of the study are summarized. Then, some pedagogical implications are suggested. Limitations of the studies are listed in the part that follows. The chapter ends with several suggestions for further research.

6.1 Summary of the study

This study was set out to explore the impact of PPP and TBLT on Vietnamese students' writing performance and self-regulation after they were instructed how to write descriptive and argumentative paragraphs for one semester. The study has sought to figure out whether the two groups significantly differed in terms of writing performance and self-regulatory writing strategies in immediate and delayed posttests. Students' writing performance was evaluated for four aspects, namely lexical diversity, linguistic accuracy, structural properties and communicative effectiveness. Meanwhile, students' self-regulation was assessed, including their self-regulation of environmental, behavioral and personal processes and their overall self-regulatory strategies.

The main empirical findings for the four research questions of the study are synthesized as follows:

1. To what extent do PPP and TBLT help students develop their writing performance?

Students in both the PPP and TBLT conditions significantly improved their writing performance for the four aspects of lexical diversity, linguistic accuracy, structural properties and communicative effectiveness for both paragraph types.

2. What is the differential effect of a PPP and TBLT approach to writing education on the quality of Vietnamese students' English written output?

The immediate posttest shows that PPP and TBLT significantly differed in terms of lexical diversity and linguistic accuracy of students' *descriptive* and *argumentative* paragraphs. In addition, the two conditions also differed in term of structural properties of students' *argumentative* paragraphs. More specifically, students in the TBLT condition had significantly higher scores for lexical diversity than the PPP condition while the PPP condition gained significantly higher scores of linguistic accuracy than the TBLT condition for both text types. The significant difference of structural properties between the two groups was only found in argumentative paragraphs in which students in the PPP group outperformed the TBLT group.

In the delayed posttest, the two conditions were only significantly different in term of communicative effectiveness of the descriptive paragraphs with the TBLT group outperforming the PPP group.

3. To what extent did PPP and TBLT help students develop their self-regulatory writing strategies?

Students in both the PPP and TBLT conditions changed their scores for overall self-regulatory strategies after the writing courses. Post-hoc tests, however, showed that the significant change of the PPP group resulted from the fact that they decreased their self-regulatory strategies from the pretest to the immediate posttest and increased these strategies from the immediate posttest to the delayed posttest. The TBLT group, on the other hand, showed an upward trend in developing their self-regulatory strategies from the pretest to the immediate posttest and from the immediate posttest to the delayed posttest. The self-regulatory process that developed the most after the TBLT course was the self-regulation of personal processes.

4. What is the differential effect of a PPP and TBLT approach to writing education on Vietnamese students' self-regulatory strategies?

In the immediate posttest, students of the TBLT group had significantly higher scores than the PPP group in terms of overall self-regulatory writing strategies and self-regulation of environmental and personal processes.

For the delayed posttest, there was no statistically significant difference between the two teaching conditions.

6.2 Pedagogical implications

This section presents the pedagogical implications for writing instruction and evaluation (6.2.1) and ways to improve students' self-regulation (6.2.2).

6.2.1 Writing instruction and evaluation

Regarding writing instruction, the present study showed that students in both conditions improved their writing performance as a result of the courses. However, other factors than the specific features of the respective conditions, such as the teacher, chances for revisions, and students themselves may have contributed to the

improvement of students' writing performance. This could be good news for both Vietnamese teachers and students because no matter which teaching approach they adopt in the classroom, students' writing proficiency can still improve if (1) teachers are enthusiastic and motivating to students, (2) students have chances to revise their drafts during the learning processes, and (3) students are internally motivated to learn to write better.

It is worth noticing that the PPP condition was more effective in helping students to improve their linguistic accuracy while the TBLT condition was better in enhancing students' lexical diversity in the immediate posttest of the current study. Consequently, Asian teachers who are used to considering good texts as error-free texts may still prefer PPP to TBLT. However, it should be noticed that both lexical diversity and linguistic accuracy play a role in enhancing communicative effectiveness and that students in the TBLT condition had slightly better linguistic accuracy than those in the PPP condition in the delayed posttest. In other words, in the long run, the TBLT condition seems better than the PPP condition in improving students' writing performance.

Regarding writing evaluation, as discussed earlier, students' writing process was not assessed in either the PPP or TBLT condition in the current study, which makes readers wonder whether students in the two conditions also differed in other aspects of writing besides the four ones being measured. Therefore, students' writing performance should be evaluated with different methods than time-restricted writing tests which seemed to be more appropriate to students in the PPP condition than those in TBLT condition. In other words, if the Asian governments want to promote TBLT, they should also shift away from standardized testing and evaluation. Students' writing performance should also be evaluated with regard to the process of writing, in addition to grading products.

However, this suggestion may result in another problem to Asian teachers. With the busy schedule and large class sizes that they are facing now, process-based assessment may add more burden to the teachers. Therefore, the issue of improving Asian students' writing performance should be solved at the roots. That is, Asian governments, beside changing the forms of evaluation, should also reduce class size

and teachers' teaching time in order to create optimal conditions for them to teach English effectively with TBLT.

6.2.2 Improving students' self-regulation

Because students' writing performance was only evaluated based on their products, not on their process, no direct link between writing and self-regulation was found in the current study. However, that does not mean self-regulation is useless to students' learning. Interviews with the TBLT respondents showed that they used the self-regulatory strategies to help them learn how to write in a context where the teacher was no longer the main agent in their learning process, as during their high school time. These strategies, therefore, can be helpful to these students in the coming years of their undergraduate study and when they leave the university, that is, when they will receive less help or even no help from the teacher. In other words, self-regulation strategies are important to students' lifelong learning. Therefore, a teaching approach that helps them improve their self-regulation should be promoted at school.

In the current study, the TBLT condition was more powerful than the PPP condition in enhancing students' self-regulation. However, in order to enhance students' self-regulation of the TBLT group even more, several things should be done.

First of all, students should be given more freedom in choosing where and when to write. In other words, the teacher should let students use the time in the classroom only for activities that need interaction such as analyzing sample texts, giving feedback to each other's text outlines, and giving comments on each other's first drafts. Other activities that students can do well at home such as generating ideas for texts, writing first drafts and revising drafts should be done at home or wherever they like.

Second of all, Asian teachers should build up the belief that students can work by themselves, and make their students believe this too. In the current study, students have long been heavily dependent on their teachers when learning at primary, secondary and high school levels. As a result, the students were highly confused with the freedom in the TBLT condition. That did not mean they were not

self-regulated by nature, but meant that the educational system did not create opportunities to exercise their self-regulation. Therefore, as discussed above, students in the TBLT condition became more independent in the later sessions and improved their writing performance although they had received little help from the teacher. The teacher in the current study had built up her students' confidence to self-regulate their learning in two main ways. First, when students asked her for help in the classroom, she elicited students to find their own answers instead of giving the answers to them. For example, when a student asked her what source he could use to build up his text, she elicited students to tell her which sources he had in his mind and why he thought of these sources. While answering such eliciting questions, students could build up their confidence in their learning process and become less dependent on the teacher. Second, the way she gave general but not-negative comments on TBLT students' first drafts made them think for themselves on how to improve their texts without being frustrated. Students, while revising their texts, learned that they could improve their texts by rereading them carefully to figure out what could be refined and by consulting their friends and other sources of help other than the teacher. These self-regulatory strategies will be helpful for their writing later when they can no longer access to the teacher's support. In short, students' self-regulation can be improved when the teacher helps students believe that they can work well by themselves.

6.3 Limitations

This empirical study has provided some insights into the impact of PPP and TBLT on Vietnamese students' writing performance and self-regulation. It has tentatively suggested some implications for writing instruction and evaluation as well as ways to improve students' self-regulation. Nevertheless, it is necessary to acknowledge some of the limitations associated with the research.

One of the limitations of the research is concerned with assigning the same teacher to both teaching conditions. This teacher had more knowledge and experience of PPP than TBLT and was enthusiastic and strongly motivated to help students produce good written products during and by the end of the course, no matter which approach she used in the classroom. Consequently, the students in the two conditions

may have made different progress in their writing performance and self-regulation if they had been taught by two different teachers, one who was good at PPP and the other at TBLT. However, in the context that not many teachers were willing to implement a new approach in their actual classroom, it was difficult to find a TBLT teacher who had similar traits of age, years of teaching and experience of teaching writing as the one in the PPP condition.

Another limitation of the study regards the way writing performance was evaluated. The fact that only writing products were assessed, and rather exclusively for the four aspects of lexical diversity, linguistic accuracy, structural properties and communicative effectiveness, may not be enough to give us a complete picture of how students improved their writing performance. If a process-based evaluation approach had been used in the current study, probably more information on how students in the TBLT conditions applied self-regulatory skills to improve their writing performance would have been discovered.

In addition, having no control group is another drawback of the current study. The investigation of the impact of PPP and TBLT on students' writing performance and self-regulation would have provided more interesting information if the data gained from the study had been compared with those from a control group in which students received no instruction. Although to some extent the PPP condition played the role of a comparison group for the experimental TBLT condition, no control group means no frame of reference for us to evaluate the extent to which the two conditions really helped students improve their writing performance. Acknowledging this drawback, however, the researcher found it somewhat unethical to set up a control group with an equivalent number of students who would receive no instructions during the whole semester. No students have ever been willing to be a semester later than their friends in any subject, especially in their first year at the university.

Moreover, it should be noted that the participants from both teaching conditions of the current study have long been accustomed to teacher-centered classrooms. As a result, to students in the TBLT condition, learning how to handle their own learning and becoming familiar with the new way of learning might take

more than a semester. Therefore, if the study had been conducted for two successive semesters instead of one, students in the TBLT condition might have performed much better than those in the PPP condition.

Finally, only two text types of descriptive and argumentative paragraphs were investigated in the current study. Although these two text types are considered to be different the most from each other (Carrell & Connor, 1991), they may not be the most common genres that students will have to write in their lives. The study would have provided more interesting information if other text types had also been investigated. In addition, students in both conditions showed higher scores on argumentative texts than descriptive texts in the four writing aspects of the immediate posttest and delayed posttest. However, the study did not investigate whether the higher scores of the argumentative texts resulted from the fact that they were always written after students had just completed their descriptive texts. Because students wrote this text type after the descriptive text, they may have recalled their vocabulary and grammatical knowledge as well as skills of generating and organizing ideas faster and as a result, produced better texts. In this case, splitting each condition into two smaller groups with each group writing their texts in a different order could give us a more correct answer.

6.4 Directions for further research

The current study shows that both PPP and TBLT can be effective in improving students' writing performance and self-regulation in a Vietnamese context as long as students have chances to revise their texts, teachers are enthusiastic and motivating to students' learning, and students themselves are aware of the importance of the learning subject. However, this study was conducted with students who majored in English Language Studies program in one semester only.

The first suggestion for further research is a replication of research on the same issues in wider and more diverse EFL contexts than that in this study to confirm or expand upon findings of this study. For example, future researchers could explore the comparative impact of PPP and TBLT on the writing performance of undergraduate students of other fields of study and even on high school and

secondary students in Vietnam. Such investigations may contribute to a fuller picture of the FL teaching and learning context in Vietnam, and may therefore allow for fully informed contributions to the development of TBLT in Vietnam and possibly in similar EFL settings.

Second, the two teaching approaches were implemented in the Vietnamese classrooms for one semester only. Therefore, a longitudinal study using qualitative tools such as interviews or case studies will be very helpful to figure out whether the effects of the two approaches on students' writing performance would be different once students in the TBLT group became more familiar with the task-based instruction. In this respect, a longitudinal study would also provide more information on how students' self-regulation interacts with students' writing processes to help them improve their writing performance.

The second suggestion leads us to one more direction for further study in which students' writing processes will also be evaluated in addition to their writing products. Students' writing portfolios, documenting why they choose an option in their writing process instead of another, and observation while students are producing a draft on each draft, for example, would provide prospective researchers with interesting information on how students in the two conditions differ when learning how to write. These differences, once analyzed, may provide additional evidence to convince Vietnamese teachers that TBLT may, in the end, be better for their students than the traditional approach they have used for a long time.

Last but not least, there are a lot of genres that students should learn how to write during and after their university such as emails, cover letters, and blog entries. To some extent, these genres could be the ones that they have to write the most frequently in their lives. Therefore, further studies could be conducted with this " writing for communication" type in a context where students can have more diverse resources of reference including online dictionaries, thesauri, e-books, and sample texts. Teaching writing when students have open access to the internet under task-based instruction could be an interesting research direction in the era when most undergraduate students possess or at least have easy access to a computer, a laptop or a smartphone.

Nederlandse Samenvatting

De beschikbare onderzoeksliteratuur blijkt de uitvoering van taakgericht taalonderwijs (TBLT) in westerse landen te ondersteunen. In Azië, daarentegen, zijn er weinig studies uitgevoerd om het effect van die aanpak in klassikaal onderwijs te onderzoeken. De focus van onderzoekers is daar sterker gericht op het effect van de presentatie-praktijk-productie (PPP) aanpak, die nog steeds de voorkeur wegdraagt van veel Aziatische leraren.

Onderhavige studie onderzoekt de verschillen in effecten van de PPP en TBLT aanpak op de schrijfprestaties van Vietnamese studenten en de zelfregulering die zij hanteren in het schrijven van beschrijvende en argumentatieve paragrafen. De studie werd uitgevoerd bij 138 studenten Engelse Taal aan een universiteit in Vietnam.

Studenten werden willekeurig toegewezen aan ofwel de PPP of TBLT conditie. Gedurende tien weken kregen ze een cursus waarin ze leerden beschrijvende en argumentatieve alinea's te schrijven. Schrijfprestaties en zelfregulering van de studenten werden drie keer gemeten, in een pretest (voor de schrijfcursus begon), in een onmiddellijke nameting (direct na het einde van de cursus), en in een uitgestelde posttest (tien weken na de onmiddellijke nameting). Schriftelijke output van de studenten werd geëvalueerd op basis van vier talige aspecten: lexicale diversiteit, taalkundige juistheid, structurele eigenschappen en communicatieve effectiviteit. Zelfregulering bij de studenten werd beoordeeld op basis van zelfrapportage (d.m.v. vragenlijsten), interviews in focusgroepen en observaties van duowerk en activiteiten in de klas.De resultaten tonen aan dat zowel de PPP- als de TBLT-benadering effectief is in het verbeteren van de schrijfprestaties van de studenten. De studie leverde ondermeer de volgende resultaten op.

- Wat betreft de directe nameting hadden de studenten in de PPP conditie significant hogere scores dan die in de TBLT groep op taalkundige nauwkeurigheid. Studenten in de TBLT-conditie daarentegen hadden significant hogere scores dan hun

medestudenten op lexicale diversiteit. Met betrekking tot zelfregulering, scoorden de studenten in de TBLT-conditie significant hoger dan die in de PPP-conditie.

- In de uitgestelde nameting viel alleen een significant, effect te constateren met betrekking tot communicatieve effectiviteit van de beschrijvende paragrafen: studenten in de TBLT-conditie scoorden beter dan studenten in de PPP-conditie.

Onderhavige studie laat dus zien dat de TBLT-aanpak effectiever was dan de PPP-aanpak bij het verbeteren van de lexicale diversiteit van studenten. Daar kunnen drie elementen ter verklaring voor worden aangedragen. Ten eerste kunnen taken leerlingen in de TBLT-conditie hebben blootgesteld aan een breder en rijker taalaanbod. Ten tweede kunnen studenten in de TBLT-conditie zich nieuwe woordenschat langer hebben herinnerd omdat ze input kozen afhankelijk van hun vaardigheidsniveau en omdat ze hun eigen beslissingen moesten nemen met betrekking tot de woordenschat die ze in hun tekst wilden gebruiken.. Ten derde kunnen leerlingen in de PPP-conditie hebben gedacht dat alle relevante lexicale items voorkwamen in het materiaal dat de leraar hen verschafte. Daardoor ervaarden ze dus minder de noodzaak om op zoek te gaan naar meer woordenschat, ondanks het feit dat ook zij woordenboeken, voorbeeldessayboeken of het internet mochten raadplegen.

Dat studenten in de PPP-conditie significant hoger scoorden op taalkundige nauwkeurigheid dan die in de TBLT-conditie kan als volgt verklaard worden. Ten eerste kan de controle van tempo en inhoud van de PPP-lessen de fouten die leerlingen maken in hun tekst hebben geminimaliseerd. Ten tweede, in tegenstelling tot de studenten in de TBLT-conditie die alleen feedback kregen over de inhoud van hun eerste tekstversie, kregen de studenten in de PPP-conditie ook feedback over verschillende andere aspecten van hun eerste versies, waaronder grammaticale fouten. Omdat ze meestal worden opgeleid om te geloven dat een goede tekst een foutloze tekst is (Tran, 2007), kunnen zij zich meer hebben gericht op het corrigeren van die fouten.

In de uitgestelde eindtoets waren er geen statistisch significante verschillen meer tussen de twee condities voor beide tekstsoorten. Na een tijdsinterval van tien

weken heeft de PPP-groep de TBLT-groep ingehaald qua lexicale diversiteit, terwijl de TBLT-groep de PPP-groep heeft ingehaald op het gebied van taalkundige correctheid. Ten aanzien van het wegvallen van het verschil in termen van taalkundige nauwkeurigheid, bevestigt dit resultaat de claim van Ellis (2005) dat TBLT studenten op langere termijn helpt om grammaticale kennis te verwerven. De toegenomen lexicale diversiteit in de teksten van PPP-studenten in de uitgestelde nameting, waardoor de verschillen tussen de twee condities niet langer significant zijn, zou kunnen voortvloeien uit het feit dat studenten toegang hebben tot andere bronnen van taal nadat ze klaar waren met hun schrijfcursus. Hoewel de leerlingen in beide condities geen schrijfinstructie meer kregen tussen de onmiddellijke en uitgestelde nameting, kunnen zij in die periode toegang tot de doeltaal hebben gekregen door middel van Engels teksten, televisieprogramma's of internet buiten de klaslokalen.

Ondanks de verschillen tussen de twee voorwaarden in termen van lexicale diversiteit en taalkundige nauwkeurigheid in de directe nameting, was er ook een gelijkenis tussen de twee groepen studenten te observeren.. Beide groepen verbeterden hun schriftelijk prestaties aanzienlijk. Andere factoren, zoals de aanmoediging van de leraar, kansen op praktijk en revisie in combinatie met de wens van de studenten om goede cijfers te halen, kunnen hebben bijgedragen aan de taalontwikkeling van de studenten.

Ten aanzien van zelfregulering, tonen de resultaten van de huidige studie aan dat een PPP-context niet de voorwaarden schept om studenten zelf hun leerproces te laten reguleren.. De leraar leek de controle over de meeste activiteiten in de klas op zich te nemen door instructies te voorzien die sterk op de beschikbare leermiddelen waren geënt en door vaste termijnen voor elke activiteit toe te wijzen. Als gevolg hiervan hadden de studenten zeer weinig mogelijkheden om zelf hun leerproces te reguleren. Door studenten een zekere mate van controle over hun leerprocessen te geven, creëerde TBLT wel goede condities waarbinnen studenten hun zelfregulerend leren konden ontwikkelen.

Er zijn zes hoofdstukken in dit proefschrift. Hoofdstuk 1 introduceert de historische en educatieve achtergrond van het onderzoek, mijn motivatie om het uit te

voeren, en de twee belangrijkste doelstellingen van de studie. Hoofdstuk 2 gaat in op de complexiteit van het schrijfproces, de verschillen tussen schrijven in de eerste taal ten opzichte van de tweede of vreemde taal, en de verschillende soorten instructie voor schrijfonderwijs in een L2 en FL. In het hoofdstuk worden twee belangrijke factoren beschreven die van invloed zijn op de schrijfresultaten van studenten, namelijk zelfregulerend leren en revisie. Het hoofdstuk gaat dieper in op PPP en TBLT, de twee onderwijs condities die in onderhavige studie aan bod komen. Hoofdstuk 3 is een methodologische beschrijving van de studie met de onderzoeksvragen en hypothesen, de institutionele context van de studie, en een beschrijving van de deelnemers. In dit hoofdstuk beschrijf ik ook de twee schrijfcursussen (PPP en TBLT) in detail met inbegrip van hun overeenkomsten en verschillen. De gehanteerde maten om de schrijfproducten van studenten en hun zelfregulering te meten worden ook in dit hoofdstuk voorgesteld. Hoofdstuk 4 rapporteert over het resultaat van elke onderzoeksvraag en Hoofdstuk 5 bespreekt de bevindingen. Hoofdstuk 6 geeft een overzicht van de belangrijkste bevindingen van de studie, bespreekt een aantal pedagogische implicaties, noemt een aantal beperkingen van de studie en suggereert richtingen voor verder onderzoek.

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Appendices

Appendix 1: Writing task prompts

Prompts for a descriptive paragraph

You have just entered the university and want to make friends with some classmates. One good way to make acquaintance with new friends is sharing your personal experience. Write a paragraph of about 150 words to describe your favorite city or town. You can describe what you can see, hear, smell, or taste there, how you feel about it as well as why you like it best.

Prompts for an argumentative paragraph

Every year, the leaders of the university organizes a meeting with student representatives from different classes and majors to listen to their ideas about what they can do to improve students' learning and living conditions. Write down your suggestion in a paragraph of about 150 words, choosing an issue on students' learning conditions that you believe most of students of the university would be interested in and which, in their opinions, should be given priority. In this paragraph, you can list the influences the action may have on the student, the benefits it will bring to the students, the faculties and/or departments and the university.

Appendix 2: Sample learning material for the PPP condition

Chapter 1

My Favorite City

In This Chapter

Genre Focus: Descriptive

Writing Product:

A descriptive paragraph about your favorite city or town.

Writing process

Get information from tables.

Order information in a descriptive paragraph.

Write a topic sentence for a descriptive paragraph.

Consider audience.

Connect ideas using *and, but, or* and *so.*

Give reasons with *because* and *since.*

Part 1 Before You Write

Exploring Ideas

1. Getting Information from Tables Look at the table below. Fill in the blank with the information you get from the table.

1. An Giang has ..... inhabitants.
2. Ben Tre has a population of .....
3. Can Tho is a city with a population of .....
4. ..... has the highest population in the Mekong Delta.
5. ..... has the highest population density in the region.
6. Ben Tre has a surface area of ..... square kilometers.
7. ..... has the largest area in the Mekong Delta.
8. Tra Vinh has an area of ..... and ..... inhabitants.
9. ..... has the lowest population density in the region.
10. ..... has the second largest population in the Mekong Delta, with ..... inhabitants.

	City/Town	Area (km^2)	Population (2004)	Pop. density (person/ km^2)
1	An Giang	3,536.8	2,210,400	625.0
2	Bac Lieu	2,584.1	820,000	317.4
3	Ben Tre	2,360.2	1,353,300	573.4
4	Ca Mau	5,331.7	1,232,000	231.1
5	Can Tho	1,401.6	1,139,900	813.3
6	Dong Thap	3,376.4	1,667,800	494.0
7	Hau Giang	1,601,1	796,900	497.7
8	Kien Giang	6,348.3	1,684,600	265.4
9	Long An	4,493.8	1,423,100	316.7
10	Soc Trang	3,312.3	1,276,200	385.3
11	Tien Giang	2,484.2	1,717,400	691.3
12	Tra Vinh	2,295.1	1,036,800	451.7
13	Vinh Long	1,479.1	1,057,000	714.6

Source: Wikipedia (http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Mekong_Delta)

2. Choosing a City or Town to Write about Choose the town or city from the above list you would like best to write about. Study the information in Activity 1 and activate your knowledge of the place to complete the chart below.

Name: _____

Area: _____

Population: _____

Population density:_____

Interesting sites:_____

_____

_____

Speciality: _____

Other:

_____

_____

_____

Building Vocabulary

3. Using a Vocabulary Chart The chart below contains words used to describe a city or town. Review the list and look up any words you don't know. Add any words that you think belong in this category.

Nouns	Verbs	Adjectives
population	be located in	modern
area	reside	comfortable
inhabitant	relax	pretty
lake	walk	safe
comfort	enjoy	cheerful
life rhythm	impress	special
aroma	possess	magnificent
temple		peaceful
breeze		typical
residents		fresh

4. Using New Vocabulary Work in pairs and use the vocabulary in Activity 3 to describe the following photos.

Can Tho Bridge

Ninh Kieu Quay

Organizing Ideas

Strategy

Ordering Information in a Paragraph

Descriptive paragraphs often begin with general information - information that describes the whole subject. Then the writer adds specific information - information that describes the details of the subject. The paragraph usually ends with a sentence summarizing or commenting on the idea.

5. Distinguishing General and Specific Information Read the paragraph on Can Tho City below. Which sentence gives general information? Which sentences give specific information? Which sentence summarizes or comments on the idea?

CAN THO - CITY OF PEACE AND COMFORT

If you want to have a peaceful life but do not want to be far away from city comforts, Can Tho will be one of your best options. Being a 'Western Capital' of Vietnam with an estimated population of 1.2 million, Can Tho has almost everything you can find in a typical Vietnamese city. There are several crowded supermarkets and modern shopping centers for shoppers to choose as well as various gourmet restaurants and nice coffee shops which can satisfy the pickiest customers. In addition, Can Tho is an ideal destination for many students from all over the Mekong Delta thanks to many universities and a variety of study fields they can choose. Despite all of these, Can Tho is still a peaceful place for its residents. Life rhythm here is not as fast as other big cities in Vietnam such as Ha Noi or Ho Chi Minh City. During rush hour, one can hardly find any traffic congestions. To relax, one can have a walk around Ninh Kieu Quay or the Sandy Beach for cool breeze and fresh air or sit with friends in many street cafés for chitchats. In short, like any other residents here, I am happy with living and working in Can Tho for its peaceful and comfortable life.

Strategy

Writing Topic Sentences

The **topic sentence** is the sentence that contains the main idea that will be elaborated on in the paragraph. It is the most general and most important sentence of the paragraph. It tells the following:

- the topic - what the paragraph is about
- the controlling idea - the writer's attitude or idea about the topic.

The **controlling idea** is a word or phrase that focuses or controls the information in the rest of the paragraph. The reader can ask questions about the controlling idea and expect to have them answered in the paragraph.

In a **descriptive paragraph,** the topic sentence is general enough to unite all the descriptive details in the paragraph but focused enough to grab the reader's attention. It should also indicate the writer's feeling about the place.

Instead of using vague, overused adjectives such as *nice, good* and *bad* in your topic sentences, use more specific and vivid adjectives.

Example:

Vague and uninteresting: *My neighborhood is a nice place to live.*

Specific and interesting: *My neighborhood is fascinating because people from many countries live in it.*

6. Choosing the Best Topic Sentence For each set of topic sentences below, put a check mark (✓) next to the best topic sentence.

1. Topic: "My Room"
   a. ____ My room is a perfect place for one person to live.
   b. ____ Many people live in single rooms.
   c. ____ My room is nice.
   d. ____ I love the big windows.

2. Topic: "My House"

a. ____ There are a lot of houses like mine in my neighborhood.

b. ____ I love my house because it is filled with happy memories.

c. ____ Big houses are best.

d. ____ My family lives in a good house.

3. Topic: "My Dormitory"

a. ____ My dormitory has never felt like home to me.

b. ____ I live in a dormitory.

c. ____ Dormitories are where students live.

d. ____ The cafeteria food in my dormitory is good.

7. Identifying Topics and Controlling Ideas Read each of the following topic sentences. Underline the topic and circle the controlling idea.

1. My dormitory room, on the second floor of Bienville Hall, is small and crowded.

2. My office at the Victory Basket Company could not have been more depressing.

3. The buildings on that street look sadly run-down.

4. San Francisco is famous for its cosmopolitan atmosphere.

5. Living in an American college dormitory can be a stressful experience for newly arrived international students.

6. Spectacular beaches make Puerto Rico a tourist paradise.

7. The Caribbean island of Trinidad attracts tourists because of its calypso music.

8. Writing and Sharing a Draft Topic Sentence Write a draft topic sentence for the descriptive paragraph on the city you chose from the list presented towards the beginning of this chapter. Then in small groups, discuss each other's topic sentences. Answer the following questions:

1. Does the topic sentence introduce the place to be described?

2. Does it grab the reader's attention?

3. Does it indicate the writer's feelings about the place?

Strategy

Considering Audience

In writing, **audience** means the people who will read your piece of writing. If you know the background and interests of your audience, you can focus your writing to reach out to that audience more effectively as well as addressing them with appropriate tone and style.

In your writing, you must be concerned about your audience.

Example: If you are going to write about an interesting tourist spot in your country, you must consider what your audience may or may not know about your country.

(a) If you are writing a letter for a friend living in your country to describe it, you may assume your readers are familiar with the place and you can use informal style in your writing.

(b) However, if you are writing for foreign scholars in your country, your readers may not know much about your country, so you will need to give some background information and use more formal style in your writing.

9. Identifying Your Audience Discuss in groups of three the audience of the following task and decide what kind of information you should include in your paragraph and the style you will use.

You have just entered Can Tho University and want to make friends with some classmates. One good way to make acquaintance with new friends is sharing your personal experience. Write a paragraph of about 150 words to describe your ***favorite city or town****. You can describe what you can see, hear, smell, or taste there, how you feel about it as well as why you like it best.*

Part 2 Developing Writing Skills

Developing Cohesion and Clarity

USING ADJECTIVES TO WRITE ABOUT DETAILS

An adjective is a word that describes a noun. Adjectives make descriptive writing more interesting. They can be in two different positions:

1. After verbs such as *be, seem, look, feel,* and *get*

Examples

The building is new.

The students look excited.

The sky is getting bright when the dawn comes.

Note: If you want to use more than one adjective, you can connect them with *and*.

Example

The room is small and crowded.

2. Before a noun

Example

The new building is located in a green area.

1. Identifying Adjectives in a Descriptive Paragraph Look at the paragraph describing Can Tho City in Activity 5. Underline all the adjectives.

2. Using Adjectives in Sentences Write five sentences about your favorite city or town using adjectives.

1. _____

2. _____

3. _____

4. _____

5. _____

CONNECTING IDEAS WITH *AND, BUT, OR* AND *SO*

Good writers connect the ideas in their paragraphs. A paragraph with connected ideas is cohesive. It is clear and easy to read.

When you want to say two things about a subject, use the word *and* to connect the information.

Example

My dormitory room is small. My dormitory room is crowded.

My dormitory room is small and crowded.

Or is used to show choices or possibilities.

Example

Students can go to the gym to play volley ball. Students can go to the gym to play basketball.

Students can go to the gym to play volleyball or basketball.

Two sentences of contrasting information can be connected with *but.*

Example

Our library looks modern. The books in it are old.

Our library looks modern, but the books in it are old.

So introduces a result or an effect when it is used to connect two sentences.

Example

Our learning resource center is modern and useful. Students like to go there to read books.

Our learning resource center is modern and useful, so students like to go there to read books.

3. Combining Sentences Using And, But, Or, So Combine the following sentences using the correct linking words. More than one answer is correct.

1. Can Tho has a smaller surface area than other provinces in the Mekong Delta. It is the largest city here.

_____

_____

2. Soc Trang is famous for many Khmer pagodas. The ethnic food here is also very delicious.

_____

_____

3. Tra Vinh is not a big town. You will feel very cozy when going there.

_____

_____

4. Tourists to Phu Quoc Island in Kien Giang province can go sunbathing on the long beautiful beaches. They can go scuba diving to explore its beauty under the sea.

_____

_____

4. Writing Sentences Using *And, But, Or, So* Write sentences to describe your favorite city or town using *and, but, or* and *so.*

GIVING REASONS WITH *BECAUSE* AND *SINCE*

Because and *since* have almost the same meaning when *since* doesn't refer to a point of time in the past. They both express a cause.

Because and *since* often introduce a dependent clause in complex sentences. Dependent clauses are clauses that contain a subject and a verb but cannot stand alone.

Look at the following examples of complex sentences with *because* and *since.* The dependent clauses are underlined.

Examples

Because/Since a lot of students want to spend time in our learning resource center, there are two large reading rooms with 500 seats here.

There are two large reading rooms of 500 seats there *because/since* a lot of students want to spend time in our learning resource center.

Note that a dependent clause with *because* and *since* can come at the beginning or end of a sentence. If it comes at the beginning of a sentence, it is followed by a comma. A comma isn't needed if the clause comes at the end of the sentence.

5. Combining Sentences Using *Because* Or *Since* Combine the sentences below using *because* or *since*. More than one answer is correct.

1. Many tourists choose to travel to An Giang Province in lunar April. They want to join Ba Chua Xu festival.
2. I love my home town, Vinh Long province very much. I was born and have spent most of my life there.
3. Ben Tre Province is famous for the products from coconut trees. A lot of visitors buy them as souvenirs for their friends and relatives.
4. Cau Duc pineaple is very sweet and tasty. Everyone visiting Hau Giang province wants to try it.

10. Writing the First Draft Write your paragraph for the task in Activity 9 on page 6 using the topic sentence you wrote and the information you listed in Activity 2.

Part 3 Revising and Editing

Revising for Content and Editing for Form

Strategy

Revising for Content

You should review a piece of writing at least twice. The first time, you should revise it for content, and the second time, you should edit for form.

When you revise your writing for content, focus on the ideas. Ask yourself if you have included everything you wanted to write about and if there are unnecessary details. Also look at how ideas are connected and organized.

Revising with the Topic Sentence in Mind

All of the sentences in a paragraph should develop the main idea in the topic sentence. If they don't, there are two things you can do:

1. If you find that you started to write about an idea that is different from the idea in your topic sentence, and you like the new idea, you can change your topic sentence to reflect the new idea.
2. If some of your sentences are not about the idea in your topic sentence, change or delete those sentences.

1. Revising for Content Revise the following paragraph for content. Decide whether some sentences need to be removed or whether the topic sentence should be changed. Cross out sentences that don't belong or rewrite the topic sentence. Discuss your changes with a partner.

My Ordinary House

We live in an ordinary house on an ordinary street in an ordinary suburb, and I think it is terrific! Our house is now about 30 years old, but it looks newer. I used to live in apartments, first in Florida, and then in New Mexico. but I prefer living in our own home. My house is like hundreds of other houses in the suburbs, one story with an attached garage. There is nothing special about the house, and it won't win any prizes for architecture, but it's perfect for our family. The kitchen is big and has new appliances, including a beautiful new dishwasher and a microwave oven. I don't like the heat, but we have air conditioning in the living room and bedrooms so it is always cool. I don't know why some people I know don't like the suburbs. For the kids, there's a nice yard where they can play. It's very safe, so my wife and I don't have to worry. I'm very thankful that we can afford this house and live our ordinary lives in it.

Strategy

Editing for Form

When you edit writing for form, focus on how the writing looks on the page as well as the grammar, spelling, and punctuation.

Following are some guidelines for forming paragraphs:

Guidelines for Forming Paragraphs

1. Indent the first sentence of your paragraphs.
2. Leave a one-centimeter left and right margin.
3. Begin each sentence with a capital letter.
4. End each sentence with a period (.), a question mark (?), or an exclamation point (!)
5. Make sure that the end punctuation immediately follows the last word of the sentence.

2. Editing for Form Edit the paragraph above for form. Use the guidelines listed above.

Evaluating Your Writing

3. Using a Writing Checklist Read the writing checklist below. Then use it to evaluate your paragraph.

	Yes	No
TASK RESPONSE		
1. Is your paragraph about your favorite city or town?		
2. Does your paragraph mention the location and population of that city or town?		
3. Does your paragraph describe sensory details about that place?		
4. Are there any interesting sites that travelers can visit in that city or town?		
5. Does your paragraph include your feeling about the place?		
AUDIENCE AWARENESS		
1. Is your paragraph written for your classmates, and not for elderly visitors for example or families with young children?		
2. Does your paragraph contain information that is of interest to your classmates?		
3. Does your paragraph use the correct register (vocabulary, sentence structure) for this audience?		
ORGANIZATION, COHERENCE AND COHESION		
1. Is there a title? Are all important words in the title capitalized?		
2. Is there a topic sentence in your paragraph? Does it provide general information about the city or town you are describing?		
3. Is there a controlling idea in your topic sentence?		
4. Are all details in your paragraph related to the topic sentence?		
5. Are there any irrelevant details in your paragraph?		
6. Is there a concluding sentence? Does it summarize or comment on the idea given in the topic sentence?		
7. Did you use linking words to connect the sentences?		
8. Have your ideas been arranged logically?		

LEXICAL RESOURCES		
1. Did you use hear-see-smell-touch-taste adjectives that add to the vividness of the description?		
2. Did you use specific and vivid adjectives instead of vague, overused adjectives in your topic sentence? Ex: Vague and uninteresting: *My neighborhood is a nice place to live.* Specific and interesting: *My neighborhood is fascinating because people from many countries live in it.*		
3. Did you use synonyms to avoid vocabulary repetition?		
4. Are all words formed and spelled correctly?		
GRAMMAR AND FORM		
1. Is the sentence structure varied in your paragraph?		
2. Is the punctuation correct?		
3. Are there any run-on sentences? Ex: Run-on sentence: *Can Tho is a nice city I love it.* Correction: *Can Tho is a nice city. I love it.* *Can Tho is a nice city and I love it.*		
4. Are there any fragment sentences? Ex: Run-on sentence: *If you want to enjoy specialties from all over the Mekong Delta.* Correction: *If you want to enjoy specialties from all over the Mekong Delta, you should visit various restaurants in Can Tho City.*		
5. Is the first sentence of your paragraph indented?		
6. Did you leave one-centimeter left and right margin?		
7. Did you begin each sentence with a capital letter?		
8. Did you end each sentence with a period (.), a question mark (?), or an exclamation point (!)?		
9. Does the end punctuation immediately follow the last word of the sentence?		

4. Teacher's feedback Hand in your second draft to your teacher. Look at the mistakes that she lists on the board and correct them.

5. Writing the Second Draft Rewrite your paragraph using your own evaluation and your teacher's feedback.

Appendix 3: Task sheets for the TBLT condition

WORKSHEET FOR DESCRIPTIVE PARAGRAPHS

Task 1

You have just entered Can Tho University and want to make friends with some classmates. One good way to make acquaintance with new friends is sharing your personal experience. Write a paragraph of about 150 words to describe your favorite city or town. You can describe what you can see, hear, smell, or taste there, how you feel about it as well as why you like it best.

Procedure

Class Meeting 1 - *Providing a model and strategic planning*

- Choose a classmate to be your writing partner.

- With your partner, read the following paragraphs and classify them into good and bad examples of descriptive paragraphs. (Hint: there are three good and two bad descriptions.)

- Work with another pair, exchange your ideas on the paragraphs, explain why you think one is a good description and the other is not and what makes a good one differ from a bad one.

- Present your ideas through classifying text features as “good” or “bad”. Make a list of features of a good descriptive paragraph.

- Build up a plan for a description of your favorite city or town in 20 minutes. In this plan, you should list the features of the city you want to address, how you will find the information about those features, how you will attract your classmates' attention, how you will order the ideas, etc. You can consult the sample descriptions that you read in the previous class.

- Share your ideas with your partners.

- Work in groups of three or four to exchange the ideas.

Class Meeting 2 – *Task-performance and reflecting on the task*

- Write your first draft, using the instruction plan that you have designed and the feedback the teacher gives to your group. You can consult any resources (internet, dictionaries, grammar books, etc.

- Revise your own text using the list you made in the previous class session.

- Exchange your text with a partner of your choice to get his or her feedback. Do you agree with his or her feedback?

- Modify your text if necessary and hand in your text to the teacher.

Class Meeting 3 – *Task revision*

- Read your teacher's comments and discuss how to improve your text with your partner.

- Modify the text and write your second draft.

- Hand in both your first and second drafts to the teacher.

Class Meeting 4 – *Task revision and focusing on forms*

- Review the teacher's feedback and revise your text for a final draft.

- Review the grammar points that you haven't applied correctly as well as the vocabulary that you have used inappropriately. If you have questions or do not understand the teacher's feedback, consult a dictionary or grammar book as well as the instruction plan containing the criteria a good descriptive paragraph should meet, or ask a peer for help

Class Meeting 5 - *Doing the similar task*

- Take advantage of what you have learned from doing the previous task to fulfill the following task.

Task 2

Write to your classmates to describe your favorite place to relax. Write a 150-word paragraph to describe that place to your classmates, who may not know the place as well as you do. You can describe what you can see, hear, smell, or taste there, how you feel about it as well as why you like it best.

SAMPLE PARAGRAPHS

Sample 1

LEUVEN - THE CITY IN MY HEART

I have been to several cities in Europe but Leuven is the best place in my heart. Located in Flemish Brabant, Belgium, Leuven has about 92,000 inhabitants and one-third of them are students. Thanks to their presence, the city has been named a 'university city'. The city is very clean, so anyone walking around this small and pretty city can hardly find any litter. In every corner and along the streets, one can find trash bins which are replaced often to make sure that litter is put in the right place. In addition, the city is very safe. The presence of trustworthy police and strict regulations on crime prevention have made the city one of the safest places to live, work and study in the world. However, the thing I like best about the city is the different places I can go to relax my mind. The Botanic Garden, Arenberg Castle, and Heverlee Forest are a few among plenty of them. Whenever I go to these places, smelling the aroma of newly-cut grass, watching wild ducks swimming in small lakes and listening to cheerful songs of different kinds of birds hiding behind green tree branches sweep my worries. Though I have only been living here for a few years, Leuven will always have a special position in my heart.

Sample 2

HA NOI

Ha Noi is the capital of Vietnam. It is very crowded. There are many places to visit such as Ho Chi Minh's Mausoleum, one-pillar pagoda, Hoan Kiem Lake, etc. The traffic here is terrible. There are many traffic accidents here, too. So, be careful when you are there. Like other cities in the North of Vietnam, Ha Noi has four seasons during the year. The fall in Ha Noi is very beautiful. Many poets and musicians have written about it. My favorite song about Hanoi is "Ha Noi mua thu" (Fall in Ha Noi). The foods here are very famous, too. Some specialties include nem (spring rolls), com (green rice), banh tom (prawn crepes). One of the food, nem has even been put in the list of fifty best foods in the world selected by CNN. In short, Ha Noi is a good place to visit.

Sample 3

CHIANG MAI - A NICE CITY TO VISIT

Chiang Mai, the largest and culturally most significant city in Northern Thailand has impressed me significantly for three main reasons. First, this city of 40.216 km^2 and about 160 thousand inhabitants possesses several national parks including Doi Inthanon, Doi Pui Suthep and Obkhan. At these sites, travelers can enjoy the fresh air and magnificent views of the city from the mountain. People favoring physical activities will have unforgettable memories hiking to the top of the hills. Those who want thrilling experience can ride an elephant and enjoy nature in another adventurous way. Second, evening activities here are various and exciting. People can enjoy different tasty foods, buy beautiful but inexpensive handicrafts at street markets, have a relaxing Thai massage or sing karaoke at hundreds of lounges. Last but not least, tourists, especially those from Asia, love the incredible beauty of many Buddhist temples in Chiang Mai. Architecturally speaking, these temples are unique to Thailand, Laos and Cambodia. Some of these temples are covered with gold and glitter under the sunshine. For its natural beauty, exciting atmosphere and ancient temples, I will surely return to Chiang Mai.

Sample 4

Soc Trang

Sóc Trăng is a city in the Mekong Delta of southern Vietnam. It has a population of approximately 1,213,400. There are about 50 pagodas in the city and the famous ones include the Khmer Bat Pagoda and Clay Pagoda. Viet (Kinh), Khmer, Hoa ethnic groups live together here. You can enjoy different kinds of ethnic foods. They are very tasty. Coming there, tourists like to taste tropical fruit in My Phuoc River Islet, or join many recreation and entertainment activities in Binh An Tourist Resort. Chol Chnam Thmay, Oc Om Boc festivals, Ngo Boat Race also attract many visitors. People are very friendly and hospitable. They will treat you with the best things they have at home. The city gets its name from Khmer origin. Soc Trang means land of silver. Everyone who has been there once wants to come back.

Sample 5

CAN THO - CITY OF PEACE AND COMFORT

If you want to have a peaceful life but do not want to be far away from city comforts, Can Tho will be one of your best options. Known as the 'Western Capital' of Vietnam with an estimated population of 1.2 million, Can Tho has almost everything you can find in a typical Vietnamese city. There are several crowded supermarkets and modern shopping centers as well as various gourmet restaurants and nice coffee shops which can satisfy the pickiest customers. In addition, Can Tho is an ideal destination for many students from all over the Mekong Delta thanks to its many universities and a variety of study fields they can choose from. Despite all of this, Can Tho is still a peaceful place to reside in. Life rhythm here is not as fast as in other big cities in Vietnam such as Ha Noi or Ho Chi Minh City. During rush hours, one can hardly find traffic congestions. To relax, one can have a walk around Ninh Kieu Quay or the Sandy Beach and enjoy the cool breeze and fresh air, or one can sit and chitchat with friends in one of the many street cafés. In short, like other residents here, I am happy about living and working in Can Tho for the peaceful and comfortable life it offers.

WORKSHEET FOR ARGUMENTATIVE PARAGRAPHS

Task

Every year, the leaders of Can Tho University (CTU) organizes a meeting with student representatives from different classes and majors to listen to their ideas about what CTU can do to improve students' learning and living conditions. Write down your suggestion in a paragraph of about 150 words, choosing an issue on students' learning conditions that you believe most of students of the university would be interested in and should be given priority. In this paragraph, you can list the influences the action may have on the students; the benefits it will bring to the students, the faculties and/or departments and the university.

Procedure

Class Meeting 1 - *Providing a model and strategic planning*

- Choose a classmate to be your writing partner.

- With your partner, read the following paragraphs and classify them into good and bad examples of argumentative paragraphs. (Hint: There are three good and two bad argumentative paragraphs.)

- Work with another pair, exchange your ideas on the paragraphs, explain why you think which one is a good argumentative paragraph and which one is not, and what make a good one differs from a bad one. Make a list of features of a good argumentative paragraph.

- Build up a plan for an argumentative paragraph on how to improve the learning condition of CTU students. List the elements that a good writer should include in his or her paragraph and which strategies he or she should use to convince the reader with that argumentative paragraph.

- Share your ideas with your partners.

- Work in groups of three or four to exchange the ideas.

Class Meeting 2 - *Task-performance and reflecting on the task*

- Write your first draft, using the instruction plan that you have designed and the feedback the teacher gives to your group. You can consult any resources (internet, dictionaries, grammar books, etc.

- Revise your own text using the list you made in the previous class session.

- Exchange your text with a partner of your choice to get his or her feedback. Do you agree with his or her feedback?

- Modify your text if necessary and hand in your text to the teacher.

Class Meeting 3 – *Task revision*

- Read your teacher's comments and discuss with your partner on how to improve your text.

- Modify the text and write your second draft.

- Hand in both your first and second drafts to the teacher.

Class Meeting 4 – *Task revision and focusing on forms*

- Review the teacher's feedback and revise your text for a final draft.

- Review the grammar points that you haven't applied correctly as well as the vocabulary that you have used inappropriately. If you have questions or do not understand the teacher's feedback, consult a dictionary or grammar book as well as the instruction plan containing the criteria a good descriptive paragraph should meet, or ask a peer for help

Class Meeting 5 - *Doing the similar task*

- Take advantage of what you have learned from doing the previous task to fulfill the following task.

Task 2

Write another suggestion to the leaders of Can Tho University in a 150-word paragraph. This time, you will focus on how to improve the sport facilities in the university. You can list the influences the action may have on the students; the benefits it will bring to the students, the faculties and/or departments and the university.

SAMPLE PARAGRAPHS

Sample 1:

Smaller Class For Better Quality

I believe that Can Tho University should reduce the number of students in foreign language classes to help them learn better. First, students will be able to practice their language skills more frequently. For example, in a speaking class, they can speak to their teacher more often and the teacher will have enough time to help every student to correct his or her mistakes. Second, students will receive more care from the teacher. In a small class, the teacher will be able to remember the name and learning level of every student and know what to do to help them improve their learning. Last but not least, a small class size often brings a friendly atmosphere to both the teacher and students. Learning in this friendly atmosphere, students will be more self-confident to express their opinions and more willing to learn. Although some people may say a smaller class size will increase the cost that the university has to pay, I believe that the improved learning quality can compensate this cost. In short, there is no doubt in my mind that reducing the number of students in foreign language lessons is the best thing that our university can do to improve its learning quality.

Sample 2:

The Official Forum for Can Tho University

There is an increasing need for an official forum for the students of Can Tho University. The forum will be the place for students to share their learning and living experiences. They can be useful for every student who wants to have a good student life in our university. Second, students can make new friends from the forum as well. They can make friends with students of the same hobbies such as photography, music, etc. Third, they can seek for help from unknown people. For example, when they want to look for an inexpensive room to live, they can post the price they can afford and the facilities they want from the room. People reading this post and have information can show them how and where to find such a room. Forth, they can buy and sell things in the forum. New students want to buy many things for their study and life while the old students want to sell their things when they leave school. This forum is the best place for the activities. In short, a forum for the students of Can Tho University is necessary.

Sample 3

A Swimming Pool in Our University - Why Not?

I think the university must build a swimming pool immediately. First, all students love swimming and it is expensive to swim in other public pools in the city. For example, it costs me 25 thousand VND for swimming at Hung Quan pool. All the swimming pools in Can Tho are so expensive for students. Second, the university should build a swimming pool in the campus because it is necessary. Third, swimming is like jogging. They both can be done individually. Therefore, you can go swimming whenever you like. You do not have to ask a friend to join you if you want to swim. Of course, it will be more fun if you can go with friends. But without them, you can also be happy. Last but not least, students can learn how to swim more easily with a pool in the campus. There are so many rivers, canals and ponds in the Mekong Delta. Unfortunately, about only 20 percent of students know how to swim. With the new pool, the university can open swimming courses for its students. And with time, maybe all students will know how to swim after they learn the skill in the university

Sample 4

A Simple Action For Great Benefits

Having learned in Can Tho University for several months, I recognize that there should be pavements for pedestrians in all roads in Can Tho University campus for the following reasons. First, students will be able to walk from one building to another faster and this will reduce the time of changing classes. Because of the lack of pavements, many students are late for their lessons when they shift their classes from one building to another and this annoy the lecturers a lot. Second, the traffic inside the campus will be safer. Since there are no pavements inside the campus, many students have no choice but walk on the lane for motorcycles. Therefore, the number of accidents between motorcyclists and pedestrians can be much reduced if the latter have a lane for themselves. Finally, these pavements will encourage students to walk instead of riding their motorbikes, which is both healthy and environment-friendly. Although some people may say that it will cost a lot of money for all these pavements, I believe that their benefits will outweigh the expense. In short, building pavements in the campus is a necessary thing to do.

Sample 5

Psychological Support Center Benefits

Among many things that Can Tho University can do for its students, I think founding a psychological support center is the most necessary. The first reason is that most students suffer stress during their exam period. Some seriously stressful students must have someone to listen to them and to help them so that they can pass their exam with less pressure. Second, many first-year students feel isolated in their first few months in a new environment. Therefore, there ought to be special programs to help them adapt to the university life. Third, some students who suffer from sudden lost of family members or break up with their boyfriends or girlfriends need help to get balanced again. With consultation from staff of this center, they will be able to overcome their problems more easily. Although opponents of the idea can say that students are mature enough to solve their own problems, I believe professional support will provide more valuable and timely help. In conclusion, a psychological support center is a must at our university.

Appendix 4: Examples of a PPP student's revised texts and teacher's comments

Task: Describe your favorite city or town

Student's first draft and teacher's first feedback

AN GIANG – MY HOMETOWN

I love my hometown, An Giang province very much. I was born and have spent most of my life here. An Giang ∨ a province in the MeKong Delta. An Giang
pl. *Wdy*
attracts tourist because of its spectacular sites with mountains and rivers. An Giang is
WW
an ideal destination for anyone ∨ like discovering ∨. An Giang has seven mountains
WW *WW* *S/V* *prep.*
with ∨ private beauty but Cam mountain is the best famous. It impress on many
prep. *WW*
tourists by ∨ natural sites and peace. You can climb the mountain, see sites and enjoy
pl. *WO* *Frag.*
cool breeze. You can enjoy delicious food ∨ only has An Giang. With a lot of natural

vegetables eaten with "Banh Xeo" . When you arrive ∨ the top of the mountain, you
WO
can visit Van Linh pagoda and Di Lac colossus very huge. There are many rivers.
WW *WW*
Especially, if you go to An Giang from lunar 8 to lunar 10, you will go boating on
WW
rivers and enjoy special food. Here, people are very friend and hospitable. If I have chances, I will invite all of you ∨ visit An Giang.

Teacher's comments:

- The word "An Giang" has been repeated for many times.
- You may consider combine short single sentences into compound or complex sentences.
- You should use more linking words to make your paragraph more coherent.
- Correct the grammatical errors in your paragraphs.

Student's second draft and teacher's second feedback

AN GIANG – MY HOMETOWN

I love my hometown, An Giang province very much because I was born and have spent most of my life here. An Giang is a province in the MeKong Delta and attracts tourists because of its spectacular mountains and rivers. This province is an ideal destination for anyone who like discovering. An Giang has seven mountains with their own beauty, but Cam mountain is the most famous. It impresses many tourists with its natural sites and peace. You can climb the mountain, sightsee and enjoy cool breezes. You can enjoy delicious food which only An Giang has. There are a lot of natural vegetables eaten with "Banh Xeo". When you arrive at the top of the mountain, you can visit Van Linh pagoda and very huge Di Lac colossus. There are many rivers where you will go boating from the eighth to the tenth of every lunar month. Here, people are very friend and hospitable. If I have chances, I will invite all of you to visit An Giang

Teacher's comments:

- This draft is better than the first draft. However, you may consider making it more coherent with more connecting devices.

Student's third draft

AN GIANG – MY HOMETOWN

I love my hometown, An Giang province very much because I was born and have spent most of my life here. An Giang is a province in the MeKong Delta and attracts tourists because of its spectacular mountains and rivers. In fact, this province is an ideal destination for anyone who like discovering. An Giang has seven mountains with their own beauty, but Cam mountain is the most famous. This mountain impresses many tourists with its natural sites and peace. There are some things you can do here. You can climb the mountain, sightsee and enjoy cool breezes. Or you can enjoy delicious food which only An Giang has. There are a lot of natural vegetables eaten with "Banh Xeo". When you arrive at the top of the mountain, you can visit Van Linh pagoda and very huge Di Lac colossus. There are many rivers where you will go boating from the eighth to the tenth of every lunar month. Here, people are very friend and hospitable. For all these reasons, if I have chances, I will invite all of you to visit An Giang.

Appendix 5: Examples of a TBLT student's revised texts and teacher's comments

Task: Describe your favorite city or town

Student's first draft and teacher's first feedback

Vinh Long – The city of fruits

Although Vinh Long isn't known by many people as Can Tho city, it is the best place which I live. I still remember Vinh Long with much good impression. It has estimated population about 1,0 milions, after the population of Can Tho. There are a lot of ethnic minority live together such as Viet, Khmer, Hoa etc…, which make the city lifelive with many different cultures. Morever the people in there is very friendly and hospitable. Therefore, you will feel sociable when you visit my city. There are some famous place specially is "River Tien park", "Truong An touristsight" and the historic sight is "Pham Hung temple" which is well - known. As you know, Vinh Long has the first biggest bride - My Thuan Bridge, is built in MeKong Delta. Now it is only smaller than Can Tho bridge. Coming to there, you can enjoy different kind of foodsand fruits. The special fruits is "Nam Roi pomelo". Beside, it has some fruits as plum-tree, rambutan…The weather is warm and cool which tourist can choose to relax.

In spite of my life now Can Tho city, I feel Vinh Long is the beautiful city in my heart. I sure that you will love it resemble me when you come to it firstly.

Teacher's comments:

- Some ideas in your description are interesting. However, I believe you can make it even more interesting.

Student's second draft and teacher's second feedback

Cap. *Cap.*

Vinh Long – The city of fruits

art.

If you want to find the place to relax after working hard, you should visit my city – Vinh Long. Although it isn't known by many people as Can Tho, it still has a

sp. *art.*

lot of attractive features. I remember Vinh Long with good memmories. It has the

sp.

estimated population of about 1,0 milion, after Can Tho's. There are lots of ethnic

V-ing

minorities live together such as Viet, Khmer, Hoa, etc. and people are very friendly,

sing. *sp.*

helpful, ∨ hospitable, which make the city lively with many different cutures.

In addition, the weather is warm and cool, so you can enjoy the fresh air.

Cap.

Moreover, there are some famous places especially River Tien park, Truong An

Cap. *WW* *Cap.* *pl.*

tourist sight, Pham Hung temple which tourist like to come. As you know, Vinh Long

WO

has the first biggest bridge - My Thuan Bridge built in MeKong Delta. Coming there, you can enjoy different kinds of food and fruits. The specialty is Nam Roi pomelo, which is known and appreciated by visitors.

WW *WW* *pl.*

Beside, it has some fruit as plum, rambutan, pineapple and so on. Therefore, Vinh Long is called "the city of fruits" which is well – known in the country. Though

Cap.

I'm living in Can Tho city, Vinh Long is the best city in my heart. I'm sure that you

pl.

will be attracted by the feature of Vinh Long when you come to Vinh Long once.

Teacher's comments:

- This draft is more attractive than the first draft.
- You should combine all paragraphs into one.
- Correct the grammatical and spelling errors in your texts.

Student's third draft

Vinh Long – The City of Fruits

If you want to find a place to relax after hard-working hours, you should visit "the city of fruits" – Vinh Long. Although it isn't known by many people as Can Tho, it still has lots of attractive features. It has the estimated population of about 1,0 million, just less than Can Tho's. There are a lot of ethnic minorities living peacefully together such as Viet, Khmer, Hoa, etc. The people are very friendly, helpful and hospitable. All of them make the city lively by many different cultural customs. In addition, you will feel comfortable and relaxing because the weather is warm, cool and the city is very clean. Vinh Long has many factories, companies which attract workers such as Hoa Phu, Bac Co Chien. Moreover, there are some famous places, especially Tien River Park, Truong An Tourist Site, Pham Hung Temple, Van Thanh Temple, which tourists love to come. As you know, Vinh Long has My Thuan bridge in the river Tien. Though it is smaller than Can Tho bridge, it is beautiful and safe. Coming there, you can enjoy different kinds of food and fruits. It is easy to shop for sale because it is cheaper than other provinces in Mekong Delta. The speciality here is Nam Roi pomelo which is well – known all over the country. Besides, it has many other fruit types such as water apples, rambutans, pineapples, longans, mangoes, etc. Therefore, Vinh Long is called "the city of fruits". Although I'm living in Can Tho, Vinh Long, where I was born and grown up, is always in my mind. I'm sure that you will love it like me if you go there once.

Note: Proofreading symbols and abbreviations

- ∨ : insert something here
- art. : wrong article
- Cap. : capitalization
- Frag. : fragment
- pl. : the noun should be in plural form
- prep. : wrong preposition
- sp. : spelling
- sing. : singular
- S/V : subject /verb agreement
- V-ing : gerund
- Wdy : wordy
- WO : wrong word order
- WW : wrong word

Appendix 6: Grading rubrics for structural properties

DESCRIPTIVE PARAGRAPHS

Prerequisite: Only mark the paper if it is about the place that students are required to described. Otherwise, students will receive 0 (zero) for the whole text.

	Structural features	Yes
1.	It's in one paragraph.	1
2.	It has a title.	1
3.	The title is a phrase, not a sentence.	1
4.	It has a topic sentence.	1
5.	The topic sentence reveals the writer's feeling about the place being discussed.	1
6.	The writer describes the place with respect to 3 or more different senses.	3
	The writer describes the place with respect to 2 different senses.	2
	The writer describes the place with respect to one sense.	1
	The writer describes the place without any reference to any of the 5 senses.	0
7.	There are cohesive devices to connect the ideas in the paragraph.	1
8.	There is a concluding sentence.	1
	Maximum	10

ARGUMENTATIVE PARAGRAPHS

Prerequisite: Only mark the paper if it is about the topic that students are required to give an opinion about. Otherwise, students will receive 0 (zero) for the whole text.

	Structural features	Yes
1.	It's in one paragraph.	1
2.	It has a title.	1
3.	The title is a phrase, not a sentence.	1
4.	The paragraph has a topic sentence.	1
5.	The topic sentence states the writer's opinion about the issue being discussed.	1
6.	There are three or more arguments clarifying the writer's opinion along with a counterargument and refutation.	3
	There are two arguments clarifying the writer's opinion along with a counterargument and refutation. Or there are three or more arguments clarifying the writer's opinion but no counterargument and refutation.	2
	There are two arguments clarifying the writer's opinion and no counterargument and refutation.	1
	There is only one argument clarifying the writer's opinion and no counterargument and refutation.	0
7.	There are cohesive devices to connect the ideas in the paragraph.	1
8.	There is a concluding sentence.	1
		10

Appendix 7: Grading rubrics for communicative effectiveness

DESCRIPTIVE PARAGRAPHS

Prerequisite: Only mark the paper if it is about the place that students are required to described. Otherwise, students will receive 0 (zero) for the whole text.

	Features of communicative effectiveness	Yes
1.	The topic sentence attracts readers' attention.	1
2.	All details in the paragraph are about the place being described.	3
	More than half but not all details are about the place being described.	2
	Less than half of the details are related to the topic sentence about the place being described.	1
	No details in the paragraph are about the place being described.	0
3.	All details in the paragraph are described vividly.	3
	More than half but not all details are described vividly.	2
	Less than half of the details are described well.	1
	No details in the paragraph are described well.	0
4.	The writer has arranged descriptive features in such a way the reader can easily visualize the place.	3
	The writer has arranged descriptive features quite well but there should be minor improvement to help readers visualize the place more easily.	2
	The descriptive features need some improvement to help readers visualize the place more easily.	1
	The descriptive features are arranged very badly and cause comprehension difficulties	0
5.	The use of cohesive devices brings about a very smooth flow of ideas in the description.	3
	The use of cohesive devices brings about a rather smooth flow of ideas in the description.	2
	These linking words are used not very well but the main ideas stand out.	1
	The linking words are used badly.	0

6.	The concluding sentence creates an overall feeling of a good closure for the description.	1
7.	The writer uses a very appropriate tone for the audience.	3
	The writer is aware of the task audience but some minor improvement can be done to bring an appropriate tone to that audience.	2
	The writer should improve the text substantially to bring an appropriate tone to that audience.	1
	The writer does not use an appropriate tone for the audience.	0
8.	All details in the description are interesting to that specific audience.	3
	Most of details in the description are interesting for that specific audience.	2
	Some details in the description are interesting for that specific audience.	1
	None of the details in the description are interesting for that specific audience.	0
	Maximum	20

ARGUMENTATIVE PARAGRAPHS

Prerequisite: Only mark the paper if it is about the topic that students are required to give an opinion about. Otherwise, students will receive 0 (zero) for the whole text.

	Features of communicative effectiveness	Yes
1.	The topic sentence attracts readers' attention.	1
2.	All details in the paragraph are about the topic being argued.	3
	More than half but not all details are about the topic being argued.	2
	Less than half of the details are about the topic being argued.	1
	No details in the paragraph are about the topic being argued.	0
3.	All arguments are elaborated clearly with either facts, or explanations, or personal experiences.	3
	More than half but not all details are elaborated, the others are not.	2
	Less than half but not all details elaborated, the rest is not.	1
	None of the arguments are elaborated.	0
4.	The arguments are organized in such a way that the paragraph is persuasive..	3
	The arguments are organized quite well, but some minor organizational improvement would have made the paragraph more persuasive.	2
	Most of the arguments should be reorganized to make the paragraph more persuasive to readers.	1
	The arguments are organized badly or there is only one argument.	0
5.	The use of cohesive devices brings about a very smooth flow of ideas in the paragraph.	3
	The use of cohesive devices brings about a rather smooth flow of ideas in the paragraph.	2
	These cohesive devices are used not very well but the main ideas stand out.	1
	The cohesive devices are used badly.	0

6. The concluding sentence creates an overall feeling for the reader of being convinced after reading the whole text.	1
7. The writer uses a very appropriate tone for the audience.	3
The writer is aware of the task audience but some minor improvement can be done to address the audience in a more appropriate tone.	2
The writer should make some substantial improvements to address the audience in a more appropriate tone.	1
The writer does not address the audience in an appropriate tone.	0
8. All arguments in the paragraph are persuasive to that specific audience.	3
Most of details in the paragraph are persuasive for that specific audience.	2
Some details in the paragraph are persuasive for that specific audience.	1
None of the details in the paragraph are persuasive to that specific audience.	0
	20

Appendix 8: Questionnaire on self-regulatory writing strategies

Direction: Please rate the following items based on your behavior when writing. Your writing should be on a 7-point scale where **1= not at all true of me** and **7=very true of me**.

1	When I do my writing assignment, I find a quiet place which helps me concentrate on my writing.	**1 2 3 4 5 6 7**
2	I turn off TV, radio, my mobile phone and computer games to avoid being disturbed when I write.	**1 2 3 4 5 6 7**
3	I make sure that no one can interrupt me when I am writing by closing my room door, for example.	**1 2 3 4 5 6 7**
4	I read model paragraphs of similar topics to my writing assignments in order to pick up some interesting ideas or new vocabulary for my writing.	**1 2 3 4 5 6 7**
5	I consult different writing books to look for the best way (paragraph organization, vocabulary, ideas, etc.) to complete my writing assignments.	**1 2 3 4 5 6 7**
6	I surf the internet for paragraphs of similar topics to my writing assignments and paraphrase some interesting ideas and structures to use them in my writing.	**1 2 3 4 5 6 7**
7	Once I finish my first draft, I ask someone (my friend, my family member, roommate, etc.) to read it and give me some feedback.	**1 2 3 4 5 6 7**
8	While writing and revising my writing, I consult grammar books or dictionary to make sure that I have used a grammar point or a word in the correct way.	**1 2 3 4 5 6 7**
9	I count the number of words after finishing every draft.	**1 2 3 4 5 6 7**
10	I record the time I spend on my writing after every draft.	**1 2 3 4 5 6 7**
11	I put some notes on my calendar of the writing drafts I have completed.	**1 2 3 4 5 6 7**
12	When I finish my writing assignment as planned, I reward myself something such as spending 30 minutes on my favorite computer games or going out with my friends.	**1 2 3 4 5 6 7**
13	When I cannot finish my writing as planned, I will punish myself in some way such as not going out with my friends or not watching my favorite TV program.	**1 2 3 4 5 6 7**

14	I ask and answer to myself WH- questions such as *who, what, when, where, how, why,* etc when writing to get more ideas for my writing assignment.	**1 2 3 4 5 6 7**
15	I have a specific schedule for completing my writing assignment which includes time to revise what I have known about this type of writing, time to look for ideas, time to draft an outline and time to write my paragraph.	**1 2 3 4 5 6 7**
16	I set myself a goal to get an A for every writing assignment.	**1 2 3 4 5 6 7**
17	I set myself a goal to get an A or B+ for writing at the end of the semester.	**1 2 3 4 5 6 7**
18	I set myself a goal to master skills to write different types of paragraphs (descriptive and opinion) at the end of the semester.	**1 2 3 4 5 6 7**
19	I build up a writing checklist for my writing so that I can make some changes on the first draft for a better writing product.	**1 2 3 4 5 6 7**
20	After I write, I review my paragraph by comparing it to what I have learned about a good paragraph of that type (descriptive and opinion) and make some changes on my first draft to make my paragraph better.	**1 2 3 4 5 6 7**
21	I take the role of a reader and evaluate my own writing on the perspective of the reader.	**1 2 3 4 5 6 7**
22	I underline key words in my writing assignments to avoid writing out of topics.	**1 2 3 4 5 6 7**
23	I make an outline for the paragraph I am going to write.	**1 2 3 4 5 6 7**
24	I rewrite the paragraph title and topic sentence several times until I am satisfied with them.	**1 2 3 4 5 6 7**
25	I make a list of ideas for the topic that I am going to write.	**1 2 3 4 5 6 7**
26	I use a mind map to find ideas for my writing.	**1 2 3 4 5 6 7**
27	I use free writing technique to write down everything I know about the topic before I actually write a paragraph as assigned.	**1 2 3 4 5 6 7**
28	After writing, I sometimes change the order of sentences to make my paragraph more cohesive.	**1 2 3 4 5 6 7**
29	I create a vivid image of the thing I am describing in my mind so that I can write a good descriptive paragraph.	**1 2 3 4 5 6 7**
30	I imagine being a subject of the argument who will benefit or suffer directly from the intended intervention when I am writing an opinion paragraph.	**1 2 3 4 5 6 7**

Appendix 9: Guide for focus group interview

Question 1: Over the past ten weeks, you have become familiar with an approach to learning how to write in English. For you personally, how did this approach differ from the approach you knew from your time at High school? You may want to mention their differences in the following aspects:

(1) the freedom to work on your task

(2) your search for help from different sources such as classmates or the internet

(3) your level of involvement in the learning task

(4) your time planning and management

(5) your goal for this writing course

(6) your feeling of anxiety

(7) what you have learnt after each class meeting

(8) your tiredness after doing the task

Question 2: To what extent do you think it helps you develop into a more autonomous learner?

Question 3: To what extent do you like this way of learning how to write?

Question 4: Would you like to continue learning with this approach for your writing subject in the next semester? Why? or Why not? What advantages or disadvantages do you see?

Question 5: What suggestions would you have to improve on the method as it was used over the past ten weeks?